Industrial Psychology 114 Complete

Industrial Psychology (Universiteit Stellenbosch)

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Industrial Psychology 114

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Introduction to Industrial Psychology

Theme 1: Learning Outcomes

- ✓ Describe the **aims** of Industrial- Organisational (I-O) Psychology and its **relevance** in organisations.
- ✓ Describe the **subfields** of I-O psychology and related practice areas.
- ✓ **Describe/compare the tasks** of I-O Psychologists and human-resource (HR) specialists.
- ✓ Explain **issues** related to **training, registration and practice** of psychologists in SA.
- ✓ Describe the major factors resulting in the **emergence of I-O Psychology**.
- ✓ Compare **Theory Y & Theory X**, and the management implications of these theories.
- ✓ Discuss contemporary **challenges facing companies** and the **role** of I-O Psychology and Human resource management (HRM).

Industrial Psychology:

The scientific study of people in their workplaces, applying psychological knowledge, theory, and methodology to ensure optimal organisational performance.

- Subfield of Psychology
- Applied areas which are utilised in the workplace to acquire and develop employees and to manage workplaces.

Psychology: Scientific study of human behaviour and all mental processes that underpin it.

- With all subfields, theories & research it provides explanations for the 'what, how and why' of human behaviour.
- An applied science and profession that uses scientific enquiry.

Importance of I-O Psychology in organisations?

- Influence human behaviours (e.g. Labourers, entrepreneurs – production and work efficiency) to improve work performance.
- People dynamics play an important role in a company's sustainability and profitability.
- Relevant for: Registered Industrial Psychologists working as an internal/ external consultant, Human Resources specialist, general managers and scientists or researchers.
- Selection and placement of employees.
- Training and development.
- Performance appraisal (assessment).
- Quality of work-life, stress management etc.

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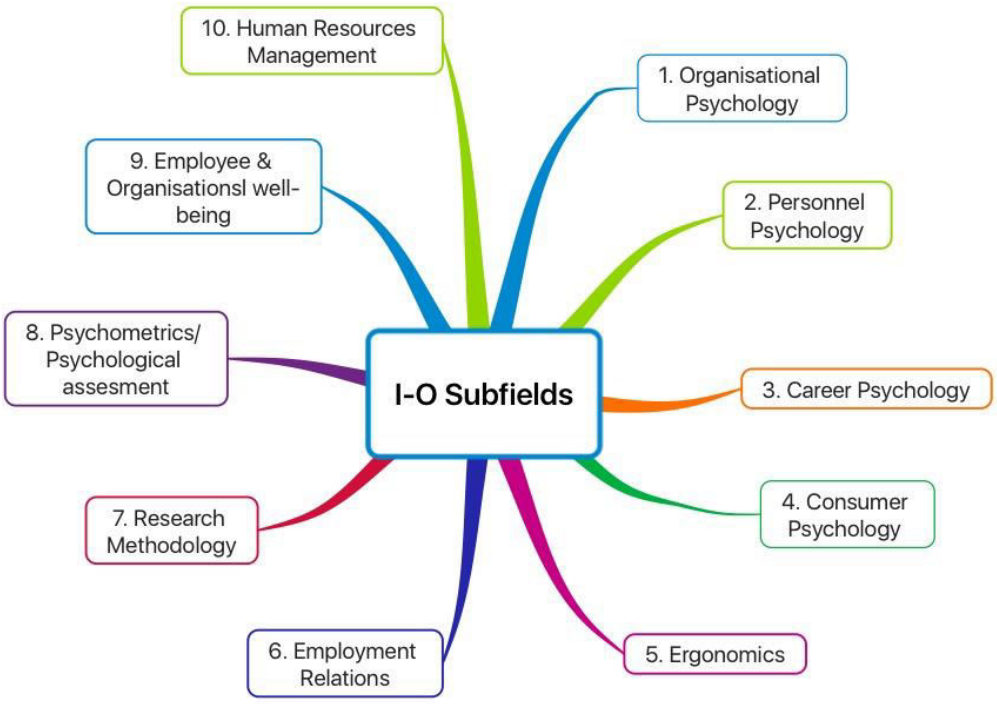
Industrial-organisational subfields:



1 Organisational Psychology

- Deals with the organisation as a system involving individuals and groups, and the structure and dynamics of the organisation.
- Aim to facilitate worker adjustment, satisfaction and productivity, organisational efficiency and employee adjustment.
- Important aspect is planned organisational change and transformation in organisational structures.

Focus: -Leadership and Motivation
-Organisational climate, culture and trust
-Organisational change and transformation

2 Personnel Psychology

- Focuses on the scientific study and application of individual differences in the workplace.
- Personality and personal differences among employees.

Focus: -Assessment and appraisal of employees
-Selection, placement and promotion of employees
-Training and development
-Reward systems
-Construction and validation of assessment
-Processes and instruments to measure etc.

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- Personnel I-O Psychologist is critical in informing HR practices.
- Employment management: Policies, processes and procedures about employment, retention, development, and disciplining of employees.

3 Career Psychology

Focus is on issues to do with the nature of work, career development, the nature of employment (and unemployment) and any other career related issues at work.

- Special interest is on factors influencing individuals in their careers and self-managing their careers to stay employable.

4 Consumer Psychology

- Also referred to as 'economic' and 'market' psychology.
- Concerned with understanding, explaining and predicting the psychological aspects (and behaviour) of consumers or buyers.

Focus: Needs, values, beliefs, attitudes, interests and other personal attributes that facilitate decision-making and motivation in buyers as they search for, purchase, use and evaluate goods and services.

- Effective use of acquired knowledge applied in advertising and marketing strategies.
- Effective client-service behaviour, positive customer perceptions to facilitate future support.

5 Ergonomics

- Also referred to as "engineering and human factors psychology".

Focus: To get the optimal fit and integration between characteristics of employees (human factors) and work-environment (technical, physical and social aspects of the workplace).

- Achieved through designing work-places, equipment and the work itself while considering human factors.
- Generally the field includes designing homes, buildings and forms of transport.

6 Employment Relations

- Also called 'Labour relations' or 'Industrial relations'.
- Deals with behavioural dynamics, communication and conflict resolution mainly between: Employers, employees, government, trade-unions.
- May also be involved in employment disputes such as promotion, selection, retrenchment etc.

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7 Research Methodology

- Industrial-Organisational research is scientific in nature (involves scientific enquiry).
- Applied research- resolve a problem using scientific, objective methods.
- Utilised by yourself and other I-O psychologists to verify the knowledge & methods used in the work situation.
- Considered a major part of any I-O psychology by academics and professionals in SA.

8 Psychometrics/Psychological assessment

- Acts as a support discipline for the various applied sub-fields.
- Defined as: The development and utilisation of various types of assessment instruments to measure attributes and behaviours of employees.
- Various work applications such as selection and development.

Key Aspects:

- Reliability and consistency
- Measurement bias and fairness
- Does it measure what it's supposed to measure i.e. Validity

9 Employee & Organisational well-being

- Draws mainly from other fields such as health psychology, abnormal psychology, clinical psychology and consulting.
- Deals with:
  - Work stress and conflict
  - Positive and disruptive employee and organisational behaviour
  - Work dysfunctions
  - Employee counselling

10 Human Resource management

What are Human resources? - People working in an organisation. Also people's skills, knowledge, education etc.

"HRM involves all management decisions that affect the relationship between the organisation and employees- its human resources."

- Connection between people and the organisation.
- Balanced goals for the benefit and betterment of people and the organisation.
- Entails the running and management of employees (human resources).
- Main activities include: Acquiring, training, appraising, motivating, performance management (goals, feedback), rewarding, and disciplining employees. Providing and ensuring a safe, ethical and fair working space for employees,
- Shift from administrative role to strategic role.
- Planning, designing & implementing of systems, procedures and practices to improve workforces.
- Consider ethics, cultural diversity etc.

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NB: HRM is not Industrial or Personnel psychology. I-O Psychologists are experts in human behaviour & related influencing processes that inform the HRM process. They have different training and accreditation requirements. Both are important and complimentary.

Challenges facing Human Resource Management:

1. Globalisation

- Worldwide labour market
- Higher workforce mobility
- Workforce cost reduction
- Political and union resistance to secure domestic job markets

2. Technology

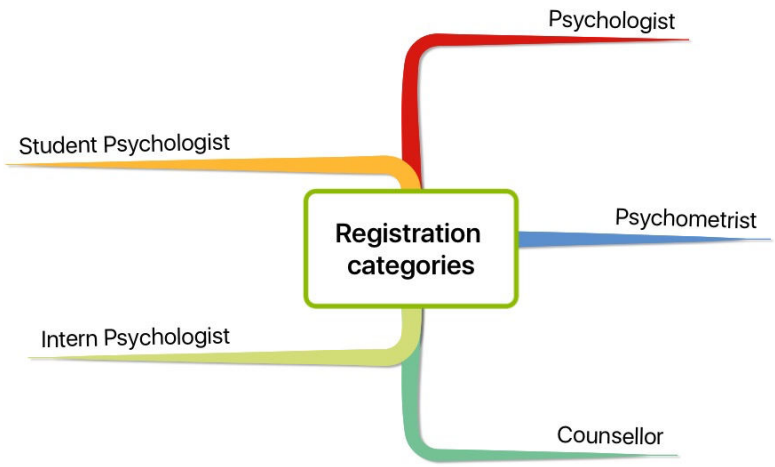
- HR software supporting communication, connecting HR practices
- Social media: recruiting, employer branding
- Fourth industrial revolution: occupational fields become obsolete
- Threats: confidentiality, intellectual property rights

3. Workforce demographics and diversity

- More women and ethnic minorities entering job markets
- Workforce ageing, dual-career couples
- More flexible work arrangements
- New training programmes and career models

Training, registration and practice issues in SA

- Training is governed by various bodies in SA:
    - Academic I-O Psychology Departments at Universities
    - Society for Industrial-Organisational Psychology SA (SIOPSA)
    - Professional Board for Psychology (PBP)
- The Health Professions Council of SA (HPCSA) is a statutory body for all the health professions in SA.
- PBP caters for issues to do with training, practice and conduct of psychologists.
- All professional Psychologists and counsellors must register with PBP



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Practice Framework- Minimum qualification for registration as follows:

- Psychometrist or Counsellor = Honours + Approved 6 months practicum + success in the board entrance examination qualifies for registration.
- Industrial, Clinical, Educational, Forensic and Neuro-psychology, Counselling and Research = Master's degree + 1 year approved internship + success in the board entrance examination qualifies for registration.

Professional registration for HR practitioners:

- Practice and training controlled by the SA Board for People Practices.
- Non-statutory body.
- Can register in the following categories:
- Master HR practitioner
- Chartered HR practitioner
- HR practitioner
- HR associate
- HR technician

The History and development of I-O Psychology

1. Advances in psychological testing

- Intelligence and ability measurement- two earliest applications of I-O psychology.
- Francis Galton- Individual behavioural differences, psychometrics.
- Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon- 1st IQ Test.
- Charles Speareman and Louis Thurstone- Theories of intelligence.

2. World War I & II

- The selection and appraisal of military staff.
- Army Alpha test for general intelligence.
- Army Beta test: for those illiterate in English.
- Army general classification test.
- Dealing with psychological problems (e.g. Treatment of shell shock).
- These newly developed techniques later developed and exported to industry.

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3. Industrialisation

- Transformed working and commercial landscape.
- Frederick Taylor and the era of Scientific management (Taylorism).
- Hugo Munsterberg with his book in 1913- Psychology and Industrial Efficiancy.

⇒ Thinking of this era was captured by **McGregor's Theory X:** Employees did not want to work and were lazy- therefore strong control measures needed to be implemented.

- Over time new insights emerged regarding work…
- The Hawthorne studies (under Elton Mayo) symbolises a departure from the over emphasis on qualification and efficiency- leading to the 'human relations management'.

⇒ New thinking captured by **McGregor's Theory Y:** Reflecting a more positive and humanistic approach to people management- people want to work hard for the fulfilment of themselves and the business, therefore better human relations.

Contemporary Challenges facing Industrial-Organisational psychology

- Ethics and socially responsible methods.
- Globalisation and cross-cultural issues.
- Environment and sustainability.

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Psychological reactions, behaviour & performance

Theme 2: Learning Outcomes

- ✓ Acknowledge the **complexity** in organisational performance, and explain the **implications** for the industrial psychologist.
- ✓ Describe the **core focus** (end goal) of the modern organisation.
- ✓ Define the **scope of practice** for Industrial Psychologists as described by PBP.
- ✓ Motivate (build a business- case for) **well-being** in the organisation.
- ✓ Explain the role of behaviour in **individual, group** and **organisational** performance.
- ✓ Understand the difference between **task performance and contextual performance**.
- ✓ Define **attitude** and identify 3 features of them.
- ✓ Understand theories about how **attitudes affect behaviour**.
- ✓ Describe the nature, causes, and consequences of **job satisfaction** and **organisational commitment**.
- ✓ Describe **emotional influences** on behaviour.
- ✓ Identify perceptual **biases** and shortcuts and their influences on behaviour.

Organisational Performance:

- Organisations are complex.
- Performance works on multiple levels-
  1. Individual
  2. Group
  3. Organisational
- Performance is multi-dimensional. Organisational effectiveness is a function of various inter-related performance dimensions.
- The end goal is more than profit: It is a sustainable organisation.
  -Well-being as a dimension of performance.
  -Behaviour is an integral part of performance

Three level perspective:

- Organisational performance can be influenced or improved by the IO Psychologist.
- Three levels are interdependent.

Individual Effectiveness	Group Effectiveness	Organisational Effectiveness
- Ability	- Cohesiveness	- Environment
- Skill	- Leadership	- Technology
- Knowledge	- Structure	- Strategic choices
- Attitude	- Status	- Structure
- Motivation	- Roles	- Processes
- Stress	- Norms	- Culture

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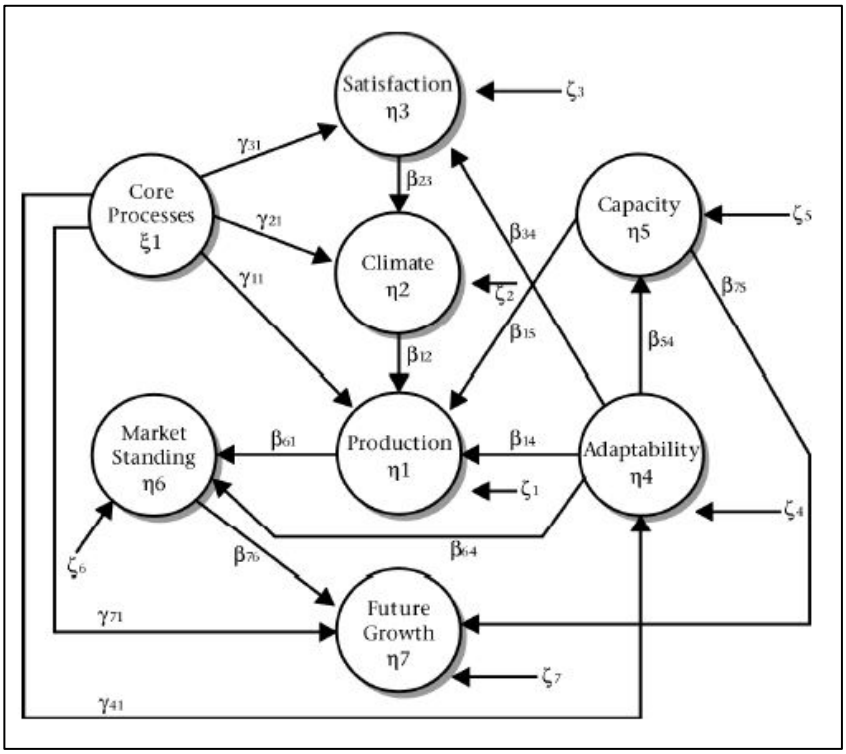
- By following a scientific approach, IO Psychologists can identify & explain the causes of effectiveness.
- Understanding these causes & relationships between them allows IO Psychologists to influence the organisation in a meaningful manner.

Multi-dimensional Performance:



The Performance Index developed by Theron and Spangenberg at Stellenbosch University.

Unit performance dimensions that are measured by the Performance Index:

1. Production and efficiency

Refers to quantitative outputs such as meeting goals, quantity, quality and cost effectiveness, and task performance.

2. Core people processes

Reflects organisational effectiveness criteria such as: Goals and work plans, communication, organisational interaction, conflict management, productive clashing of ideas, integrity and uniqueness of the individual or group, learning through feedback and rewarding performance.

3. Work unit climate

Refers to the psychological environment of the unit, and gives an overall assessment of the integration, commitment and cohesion of the unit. It includes working atmosphere, teamwork, work group cohesion, agreement on core values and consensus regarding the vision, achievement-related attitudes and behaviours and commitment to the unit.

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4. Employee satisfaction

Centres around satisfaction with the task and work context, empowerment and career progress, as well as with outcomes of leadership, e.g. trust in and respect for the leader and acceptance of the leader's influence.

5. Adaptability

Reflects the flexibility of the unit's management and administrative systems, core processes and structures, capability to develop new products/services and versatility of staff and technology. Overall, it reflects the capacity of the unit to appropriately and expeditiously change.

6. Capacity

Reflects the internal strength of the unit, resources including financial resources, profits and investment, physical assets and materials supply and quality and diversity of staff.

7. Market share/scope

Includes market share (if applicable), standing competitiveness and market-directed diversity of products or services, customer satisfaction and reputation for adding value to the organisation.

8. Future growth

Serves as an overall index of projected future performance and includes profits and market share (if applicable), capital investment, staff levels and expansion of the unit.

The Burke and Litwin Model:

- Mission and Strategy, Leadership and Organizational Culture= Transformation factors. Enablers prompted by external environment.
- People need to perform in a way that contributes to them.

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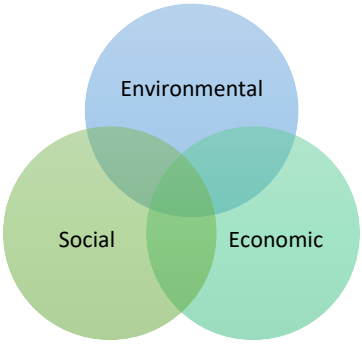
- Strategic performance management = aligning goals of performance of employees with those of the organisation. Through assessment of performance and employee development.

Performance: The end goal

Can organisations survive by focusing only on short term gains and profits?

→ **MAYBE NOT!**

→ **Sustainability** is the core focus of modern organisations.



Scope of practice for Industrial- Organisational Psychologists described by the Professional Board for Psychology (PBP):

- The application of the principles of psychology…
- To issues related to the work situation…
- Of relatively well adjusted adults…
- In order to optimize individual, group and organisational…
- Well-being and effectiveness.

- NB- Well-being and effectiveness are not mutually exclusive!

Well-being as a performance dimension

- Critical question: What is required to sustain performance?
- Essential factor= Individual well-being.
- Inability of an organisation to manage this can lead to stress and burn-out.
- This impacts on group and organisational effectiveness (Unit performance dimensions).
- Can eventually lead to **financial implications.**
- Role of IO Psychologist- Influence task performance and well-being.

Performance: The centrality of behaviour

Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

- Relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is a complex one.

1. Job satisfaction causes job performance.
2. Job performance causes job satisfaction.
3. Job satisfaction and performance cause each other.
4. No direct link at all- observed correlation due to unmeasured variable.
5. No relationship at all.

After many experiments and tests…

- Satisfied workers do tend to be higher performing.

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- Job commitment's role= stronger associations of job commitment with Organizational Citizenship Behaviour – Aspect of performance that facilitate performance of core job tasks.
- Job attitude variable→ Positive attitude = Better performance.

Task Performance vs Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Task Performance: The effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that relate to the organization's technical core.

→ Conversion of raw materials into goods and services that constitute the products of the organisation.

→ Activities that maintain and service the technical core of the organisation.

Job Specific Task Performance: How well a person fulfils the tasks listed on their job description.

Non-specific Task Performance: A general proficiency dimension, representing performance of tasks may not be core to a person's role in the organisation.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB): Those that support the organisational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function.

→ Work behaviours that fall outside the domain of task performance.

→ Helping co-workers, volunteering for extra work & describing the organisation in a positive way.

→ 2 Dimensions:
1. Behaviour towards individuals (OCB-I)
2. Behaviour towards organisations (OCB-O)

Flip side: Counter-productive work behaviour (CWB): Behaviours that are damaging to other individuals, to productivity and the organisation as a whole.

→ Property damage, theft and misuse of resources.

→ Substance abuse.

→ Violence, including bullying.

→ Lateness, absenteeism, social-loafing & turnover.

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Centrality of behaviour:

- Group Behaviour:
  - → Synergies in task performance via the collaborative efforts of individuals.
  - → Emphasis on team effectiveness and innovation.
- Organisational Behaviour:
  - → Culture- accepted 'ways of doing' that shapes individual behaviour.
  - → Strategic choices in the organisation.

Implications for I-O Psychologist:

- A systems approach is required for diagnosis/ interventions.
- A scientific approach is necessary to explain and influence performance.
- **End goal**=Sustainability, Employee Well-being is an important component of this.
- Human behaviour is not restricted to task performance- integral part of individual, team and organisation performance.

Influencing behaviour:

→ I-O Psychology aims to influence behaviour through studying it.

1. Direct approach
2. Indirect approach

1. Direct approach: Focus on the behaviour itself, and less on the underlying causes. Based on learning theories, conditioning and reinforcement can be used for shaping and controlling behaviour.

- → Positive reinforcement: Money, praise, social recognition.
- → Negative reinforcement: Daily checks, something unpleasant.
- → Punishment: Verbal, withholding bonus in response to negative behaviour.
- → Extinction: Discontinuation of reinforcement interventions to discontinue enforced behaviour.

The social learning perspective further adds the social aspect of learning. I.e. observe how others are rewarded or punished.

- → Social modelling: preconceive outcome of a behaviour based on observing the behaviour of others and consequences thereof.
- → Role of cognition: People are decision makers. Habitual or dispositional behaviour results from repeatedly responding to particular situations in the same way. Becomes automatic behaviour.
- → Performance appraisal interventions. Train and develop people on specific competencies.

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2. **<u>Indirect approach:</u>** Focuses on the causes of behaviour.

→ Focus on psychological reactions- attitudes, emotions, perception.

→ Focus on individual differences (Theme 3)

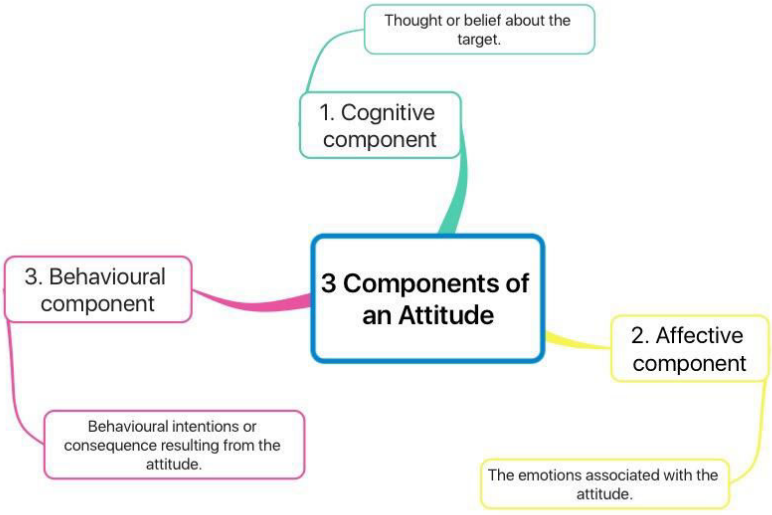
→ Environmental features- social influences and job design.

Psychological reactions:

What happens in a person's mind before acting out behaviour?

Attitudes and behaviour: What is an attitude?

- Evaluate statements or beliefs about someone or something.
- Directed towards a target (person, object or event)
- Represent the degree to which that target is perceived favourably or unfavourably.


Thought or belief about the target.
1. Cognitive component
3. Behavioural component
3 Components of an Attitude
2. Affective component
Behavioural intentions or consequence resulting from the attitude.
The emotions associated with the attitude.

E.g. My office space is too small. (Cognitive component)
Therefore…. I feel frustrated, angry, disappointed. (Affective component)
Therefore…I request a bigger office, complain. (Behavioural component)

- Acronym to remember: CAB

<u>Linking attitude and behaviour- Cognitive Dissonance Theory</u>

When attitude and behaviour are dissonant or inconsistent, the discomfort associated with that dissonance motivates people to act to reduce it.

- Greater the importance of the attitude=more likely people will behave in accordance with it.
- However, social pressure, obligation or incentive might lead people to behave in ways not reflecting their attitude.
- In this case people modify their attitude- or they find a reason, excuse or justification

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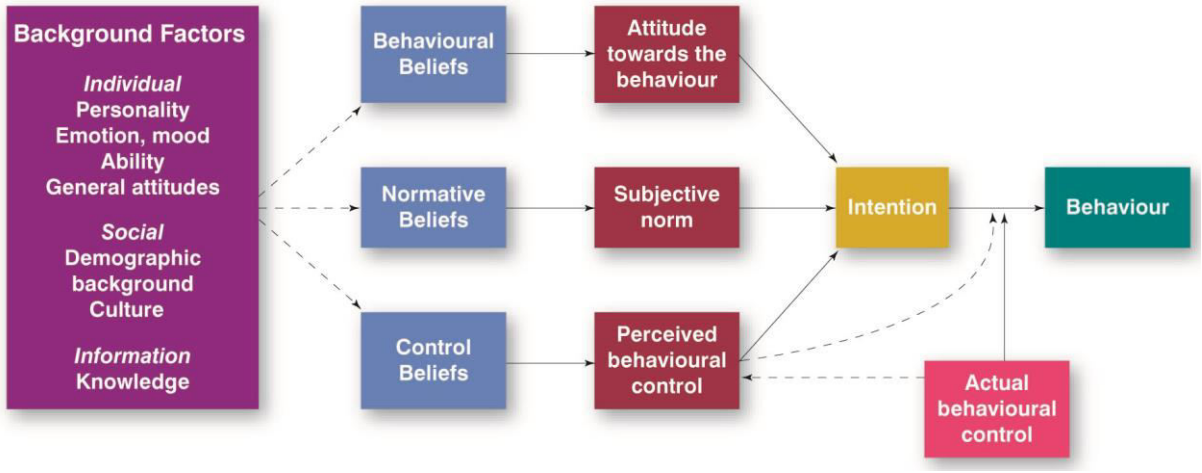
Theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour:



- Attitudes or beliefs are formed based on a variety of individual, external, and contextual variables. → Personality, education, life experience.
- Key aspect = behavioural beliefs → attitudes about behaviour.
- Also includes beliefs about social norms and perceptions of control → judgements about what is socially acceptable in respect of behaviour.
  → Perceptions of behavioural control concern the extent to which people feel able to perform actions or behaviours.
- Formation of behavioural intention → All demonstrated behaviour flows from intention.

Work related attitudes:

Job Satisfaction: Person's general feelings about their job.

→ Extent to which they feel positive or negative about it.
→ Judgement of satisfaction is subjective.
→ Influenced by personality, social comparison and job.

1. Personality and dispositions:

Inclination to appraising aspects of your job which might be associated with personality traits.

2. Job characteristics;

Satisfaction may reflect with many aspects of work. E.g. Low pay mitigated by other benefits such as child support.

3. Distributive justice:

Social comparison. E.g. How much you are payed compared to people in a similar job, and perceptions of fairness (how you are treated).

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Organisational commitment: Concerned with the extent to which an individual feels they have a positive relationship with their organisation, or conversely, are locked into a relationship with their organisation.

- Continuance commitment: An individual remains in an organisation because the costs of leaving are too great.
- Affective commitment: Emotional attachment a person feels towards their organisation. Goals and values are consistent with their own.
- Normative commitment: Obligation to be loyal, moral obligation and commitment even if the person is dissatisfied with their job.

! **Use acronym CAN to remember.**

All three are likely to have been caused by certain work experiences and perceptions of the organisation. People will look at alternatives- people who are more driven & ambitious will examine other employment opportunities.

Other work attitudes:

- Employee engagement:
- Extent to which people are not only satisfied, but also enthusiastic and actively involved with their job and organisations.
- Passionate about work = customer satisfaction, profit, productivity, turnover.
- Disengaged = no effort or attention.

- Job involvement:
- How invested a person feels in their job in an organisation.

- Justice & Fairness:
- Distributive justice = perceived fairness.
- Fair treatment, pay and compensation.
- Procedural justice = perceived fairness of systems and processes used to determine compensation.

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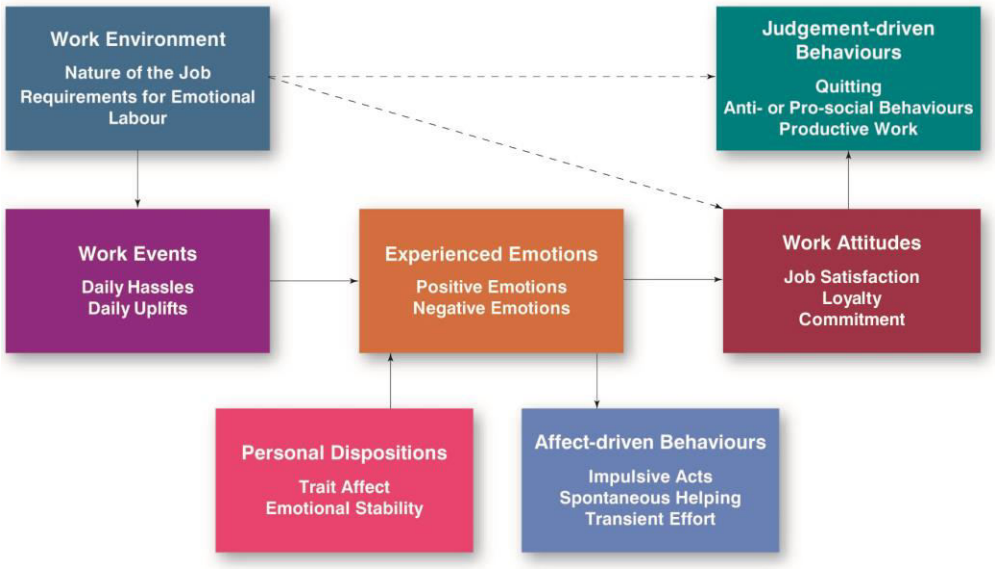
Emotion and Behaviour:



Perception and Behaviour:

- → The judgements that people make about their environment and people.
- → Influence how people respond.
- → Perception of reality that counts.
- → Information is processed by the perceiver…therefore filtered through their values, personality traits and emotions.
- → People also develop shortcuts in perceptions that enable them to quickly make sense of the world around them.

1. Selective attention: Pay attention primarily to information that you understand or are familiar with. Bias to remembering certain aspects or traits.

2. Stereotyping: Mental models that people hold about others.

3. Halo effect: Perceive something positive about a person and then tend to evaluate

4. everything about that person overly positively.

5. Contrast effects: When a person is judged in comparison to a recently perceived other. (Interviews- comparing to previous interviewee)

6. Similar-to-me effects: When an individual perceives positively those characteristics that appear to be consistent with their own.

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Individual Differences at Work

Theme 3: Learning Outcomes

- ✓ Explain the meaning of and the basis for Industrial Psychological differences.
- ✓ Understand the major aspects of individual differences, personality and intelligence including the related theoretical underpinnings.
- ✓ Appreciate the implications of individual differences on behaviour- and especially work behaviour (performance).
- ✓ Appraise the role of emotions and related psychological constructs on work behaviour (performance).
- ✓ Understand how individual differences are measured. Explain the difference between reliability and validity, and the different ways of establishing each.

Introduction to individual differences

- People differ in various ways and the differences have implications for behaviour and thus performance.
- We all hold implicit theories of others differences to ourselves.
- Individual differences relevant to the work environment:
  - → Personality
  - → Intelligence/Cognitive ability
  - → Emotions
- Relevance of individual differences to work and work performance depends on context and time.
- Understanding the effects of individual differences on work behaviour requires an appreciation of the explicit theories of human behaviour.

Intelligence

- What is intelligence?

"A very general mental capability that, among other things, involves the ability to reason, plan, solve problems, think abstractly, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly and learn from experience. It is not merely book learning, a narrow academic skill, or test-taking smarts. Rather it reflects a broader and deeper capability for comprehending our surroundings- 'catching on', 'making sense' of things or 'figuring out' what to do

- *Gottfredson*

- Also known as Cognitive ability or general mental intelligence (GMI).

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General Intelligence/ Ability Models

Francis Galton- Theory of hereditary Genius
- Correlation and regression

→ Techniques developed further by **Alfred Binet.**
- First Intelligence test
- Series of tasks to differentiate levels of intelligence
- 'Relative'- how they compare their peers

→ **Spearman's G**
- Noticed overlaps between scores of different kinds of ability test
- Someone good at maths generally good at science, English, etc.
- 'g' for general intelligence

Specific ability models (Structure of cognitive ability)

→ **Thurstone** rejected the 'g' notion and proposed 7 primary abilities.

→ More related to/ consistent with common occupational tests in organisations.

- Verbal comprehension
- Word fluency
- Number facility
- Spatial visualization
- Associative memory
- Perceptual speed
- Reasoning

→ **Vermon's** model included 2 facets of general ability.

- Verbal/educational intelligence, consisting of verbal, numerical, and educational abilities.
- Spatial/mechanical intelligence, which consisted of spatial, mechanical and practical abilities.

→ **Cartell** proposed 2 factors of intelligence, although he used a different rationale.

- Fluid ability (gf): The ability to solve novel problems with no prior knowledge or education relating to the problem.
- Crystallized ability (gc): Learned strategies for solving problems such as those related to education, and cumulative work experience.

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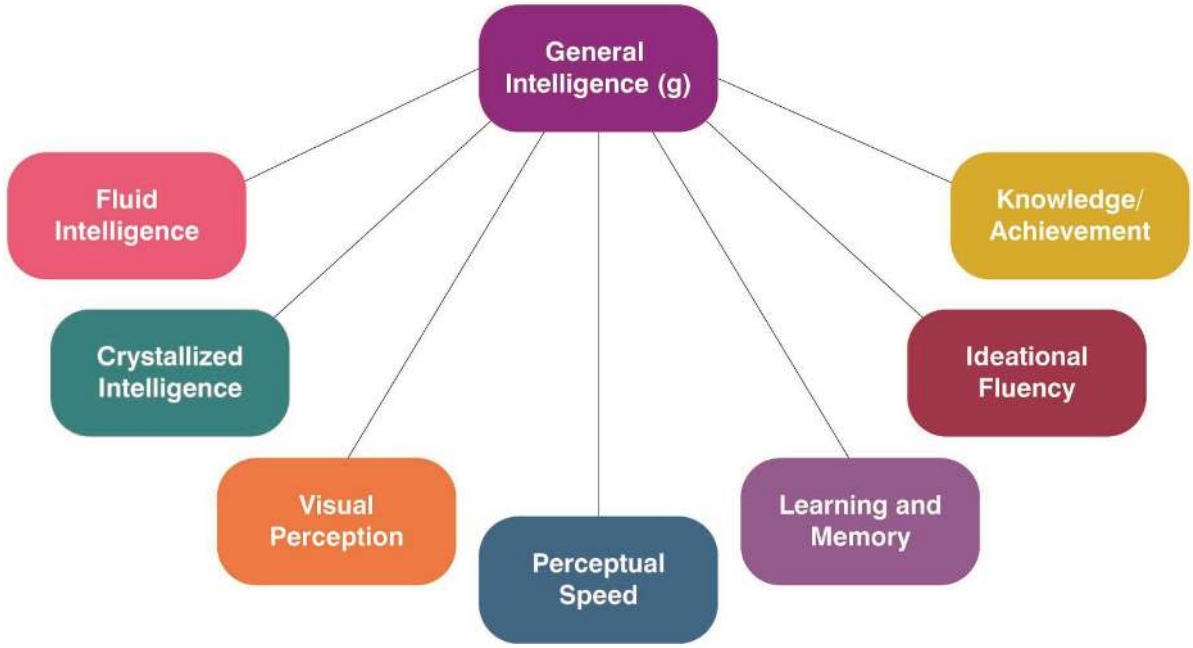
The hierarchical model of cognitive ability

→ **Carrol** combines 'g' with the facets.



Intelligence and Work

→ There is a correlation between cognitive ability and performance.

- People with higher levels of cognitive ability tend to perform better at work.
- Cognitive ability impacts on the acquisition of knowledge about the job, including the speed with which the knowledge is acquired and transferred.
- The validity of the relationship varies with job complexity.
- The relationship is moderated by context and time.

Multiple Intelligences

→ The multiple intelligence school of thought represent what cognitive theories 'fail to' capture: Practical and Social intelligences.

→ Emotional Intelligence (EI) (EQ) is one example and is defined as:

"The ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotions; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotions and intellectual growth."

→ EI is viewed as a powerful alternative to general intelligence (g) in predicting success in life and work.

→ Strong predictor of managerial and leadership success.

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Personality

We are implicit personality theorists- every day we seek to understand others personality and to be understood. Defined as: "An individual's unique constellation of consistent behavioural traits."

Personality traits

→ Observing the behaviour of others, we try to find order and regularity in it.

→ Stable patterns of behaviour = dispositional or trait-like.

→ The trait theory bolsters the widely accepted definition of personality by emphasizing the assumptions that personality is:

- Internal
- Stable (unchanging over time)
- Consistent (apply across different situations)
- Different (unique to an individual)

→ Situational theorists challenge and/or expand the trait theory by emphasizing the importance of context (situational consistency).

- In contrast to the idea that traits apply across different situations, they argue that traits are coherent responses to particular situational cues.
- People behave differently in different situations E.g. At home or at work.

Lexical approach to personality traits

- States that the most important personality characteristics will have been encoded in natural language as society has evolved.
- Studied English dictionary, extracting all personality-related words.
- Needed to be refined further…

Big 5 personality dimensions (EACEO)

→ Suggests most adequate representation of personality traits is to group them into 5 broad bipolar dimensions.

- **Extraversion:** The extent to which a person is outgoing and sociable versus quiet and reserved.
- **Agreeableness:** The extent to which a person is warm and friendly versus cold and unfriendly.
- **Conscientiousness:** The extent to which a person is organised and dependable, versus impulsive and disorganised.
- **Emotional stability:** The extent to which a person is calm and stable versus neurotic and anxious.
- **Openness/Intellect:** The extent to which a person is imaginative and open to new experiences, versus narrow-minded and unimaginative.

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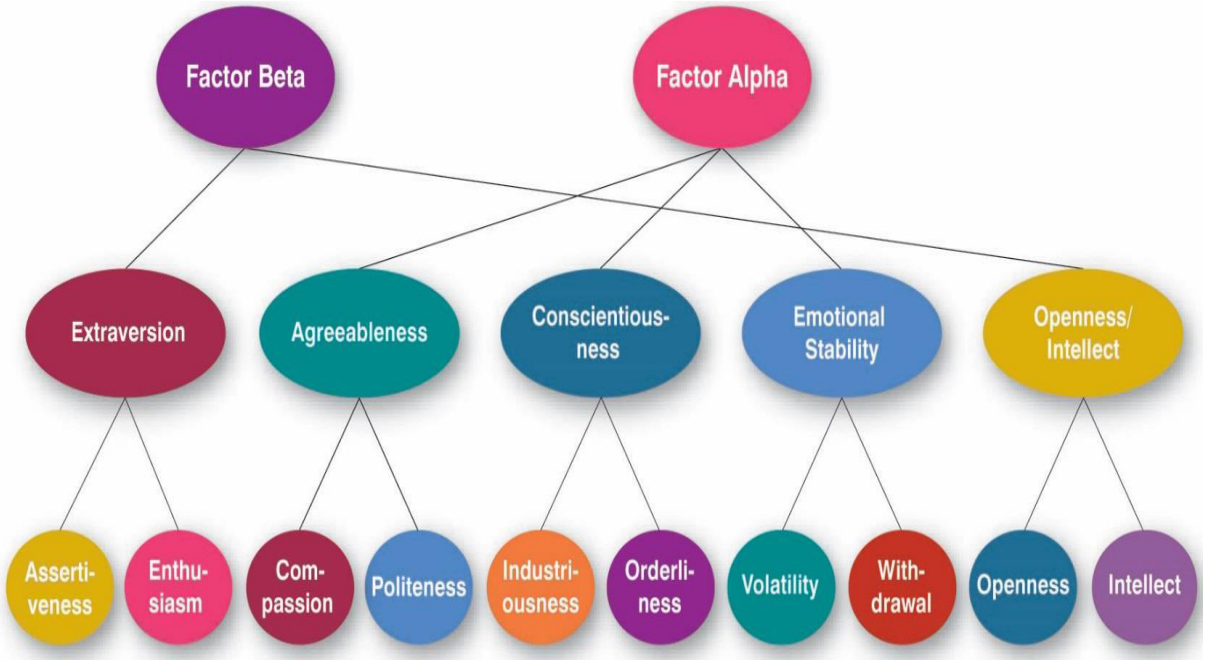
→ Importantly the dimensions are theoretically independent or unrelated to one another.
→ Trait models are not to be confused with type models.
→ Researchers have explored the levels immediately above and below the big five…can be grouped into two broader dimensions.



Personality Development Theories

1. **Psychoanalysis**

- Sigmund Freud
- Looked at structure, development and process of personality in 3 parts…
→ The 'id' represents basic drive for instant gratification.
→ The 'ego' mediates basic desires on the reality principle.
→ The 'super-ego' represents social conscience.
- Important to look at conflict between structures.
- Proposed that adult personality is influenced by childhood development.

2. **Behaviourism**

- How observable behaviour is shaped by the environment
- Watson and Skinner
- Environmentalism: Behaviourists suggest that in order to predict and explain behaviour, psychologists should look to the environment and the interactions between behavioural responses and environmental stimuli.
- Pavlov did experiments with dogs. Condition a hungry dog to salivate in response to a neutral stimulus (bell ringing) = conditioning.

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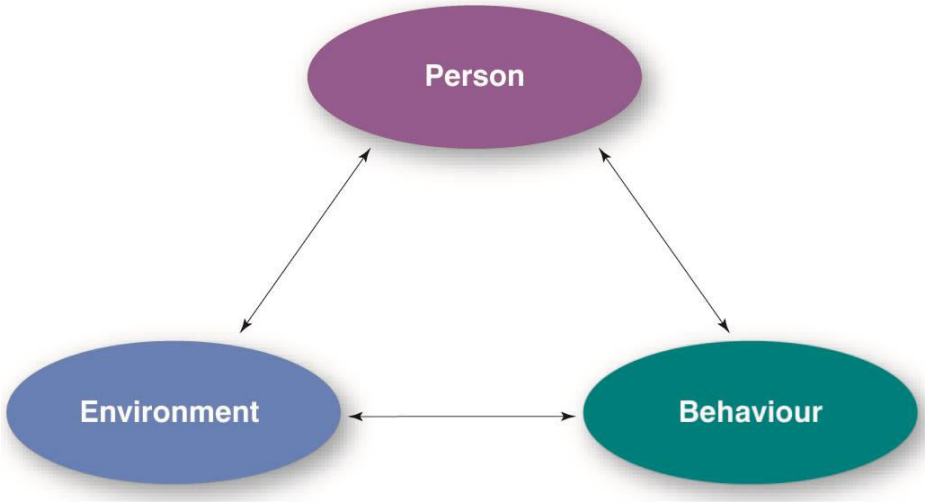
3. **Social Learning/ Reciprocal Determinism**

- Albert Bandura
- Importance of reciprocal determinism between environment, person and behaviour.
- Observational learning and self-efficiency.



Personality and work

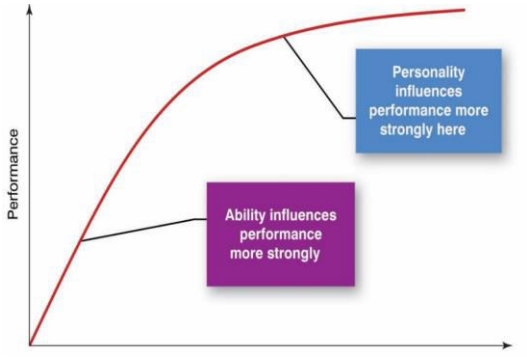
- Personality traits influences job performance through the effect it has on psychological reactions/states (attitudes) as well as on work-related behaviour, especially organisational citizenship behaviours.

→ Job satisfaction and commitment
→ Occupational interests
→ Team processes
→ Leadership behaviour

- Personality traits predict various forms of performance i.e. specific personality traits are more or less important in different jobs.

Cognitive Ability and work

- Critical in the learning phase of the job, but the influence thereof decreases as jobs become more familiar and practiced.
- Over time, other factors such as motivation and personality become increasingly more important.



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Emotions and work

- Discrete reactions (e.g. anger, joy) directed towards a specific target or cause.
- People are able to regulate emotions e.g. feel something but outwardly express something else.

Moods

- A global positive or negative feeling.
- Not focused on a specific cause.
- May last for only a few moments or even for a few weeks.

Dispositional/trait effect

- Represent the general tendency to experience positive or negative feelings, moods and emotions.
- Distinguish between positive and negative affectively.
- More closely associated with personality.

→ Although we distinguish between emotions and personality, it is actually intertwined. The concepts of Core Self Evaluation and Psychological Capital are examples of this.

Core Self Evaluation (CSE)

Represent a stable personality trait and encompasses the way in which individuals fundamentally see themselves. These evaluations happen at subconscious level.

4 Key Effective Tendencies:

→ **Self-esteem**: The extent to which people feel good about themselves.
→ **Self-efficiency**: How confident people feel about their capabilities.
→ **Locus of Control**: The extent to which people feel in control of events.
→ **Neuroticism**: Moody, anxious, worry, fear, anger experienced.

- In general people with a high CSE tend to be more confident, positive and eel in control compared to those with low CSE.
- CSE associated with job satisfaction as it influences how people perceive their job characteristics (positive or negative).
- People with high CSE tend to seek and attain more rewarding jobs- due to more self-belief.
- High neuroticism (Low CSE) is associated with an avoidant approach to work tasks, activities and behavioural strategies compared to those with low neuroticism (High CSE)
- Long term impact on success and happiness at work.

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Psychological Capital

Builds from Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB).

PsyCap described as a positive psychological state of development, which comprises:

→ **Hope**: Persevering towards goals and redirecting effort in order to attain them.
→ **Optimism**: Having a positive outlook and feeling personally responsible for success.
→ **Resilience**: Bouncing back and maintaining effort in the face of setbacks.
→ **Self-efficiency**: As with CSE, having confidence in one's own capability.

- State like and therefore open to development.
- Impactful on work-related performance.

Measuring Individual Differences

→ Unlike the measurement of physical characteristics, measuring individual differences (psychometrics) is more complex as it involves measuring latent constructs (unseen or intangible attributes).
→ A measure/scale/test should have the following properties:
  - **Reliability**: Stability over time and internally consistent.
  - **Validity**: Measure what it claims to measure.

Reliability:

→ Always some inaccuracy in the test.
→ **Test score = True score + Error**

Method of estimating reliability:

1. **Stability over time**

→ An assumption of personality and trait theories are that they are stable over time. Therefore, test scores should be fairly similar over a set time interval.

2. **Internal consistency**

→ An assumption in the design of psychometric tests is that the items on the test all tap into the attribute of interest.

- **Split-half reliability method**

- Pretend that instead of one test, there is 2 or more.
- E.g. 100 item test and break it into two 50-item tests, one consisting of all the even-numbered items and the other all the odd-numbered items.

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- Correlate the total scores of the two sub-tests.
- Correlate highly= test is reliable = internal consistency.

- **Conbrach's Alpha**
- Most commonly used method as it overcomes some of the problems of the split-half method.
- It considers correlations between the individual test items to determine the extent to which they measure the same unidimensional concept.

- **Inter-Rater Reliability**
- Different individuals make judgements about a person E.g. Ratings of performance of a worker made by several different supervisors.
- Level of agreement among raters.

Validity

→ Whether a measurement measures the constructs that is claims to measure, and the extent to which the test predicts important criteria.
→ Conduct job analysis to identify the important demands of a job and the human attributes necessary to meet these demands.
→ Choose or develop a test to asses these abilities. The test is called a **predictor** – used to forecast another variable.
→ Measure of individual's performance in meeting job demands is called the **criterion-** variable we want to predict.
→ Hypothesis that people who do better on the predictor will also do better on the criterion.

1. **Face validity**
- Demonstrated by the way the test looks in the eyes of the test-takers.
- Qualitative/subjective judgement about whether the test items appear relevant for their purpose.
- The perception of relevance makes test taking worthwhile, thereby increasing test taking motivation.

2. **Criterion- Related validity**
- Validity approach that is demonstrated by correlating the test score with a performance measure; inference that people with a high test score = high performance.
- Validity coefficient: Correlation between a test score and a performance measure.
- **Predictive validity**
- Time lag between test data and criterion data.

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- **Concurrent validity**

- No lag between gathering test scores and performance data.
- Test is administered to current employees not the person who took the test- data collected simultaneously.

3. Content- Related validity

- Demonstrates that the content of the selection procedure represents an adequate sample of important work behaviours and activities.
- Analyse job to determine important tasks/ duties and abilities required to fulfil those.

4. Construct-Related validity

- Permissibility of decisions or inferences regarding psychological constructs.
- Involves performing a range of statistical analyses in order to establish an evidence base for the validity of a measurement.
- Greater accumulation of evidence = Greater confidence.

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Motivation at Work

Theme 4: Learning Outcomes

- ✓ **Define motivation** at work.
- ✓ Understand and evaluate **need theories** of motivation.
- ✓ Understand and evaluate the **trait perspective** of motivation.
- ✓ Understand and evaluate **cognitive theories** of motivation.
- ✓ Understand how perceptions of **equity** affect work motivation.
- ✓ Understand how motivation can be enhanced through **job design**.
- ✓ Integrate different theories of motivation **to understand strategies** for their application.

→ "The study of work motivation is concerned with why people initiate behaviour and effort at work, and the processes that determine its intensity, direction towards goals, and maintenance over time."

→ Performance is a function of both ability and motivation.

Different perspectives on motivation- how people are motivated (Woods and West)	**Specific Theories**
To satisfy needs	• Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs • Aderfer ERG theory • Herzberg's Two-Factor theory
By personal traits	• McClelland's theory of motivation (Needs for achievement, affiliation and power)
By external stimuli	• Behaviourism/learning theories
In response to cognition of their work environment	• Expectancy theory • Goal setting theory
By perceptions of fairness and justice	• Equity theory • Organisational Justice
By characteristics of their jobs	• Job characteristics model

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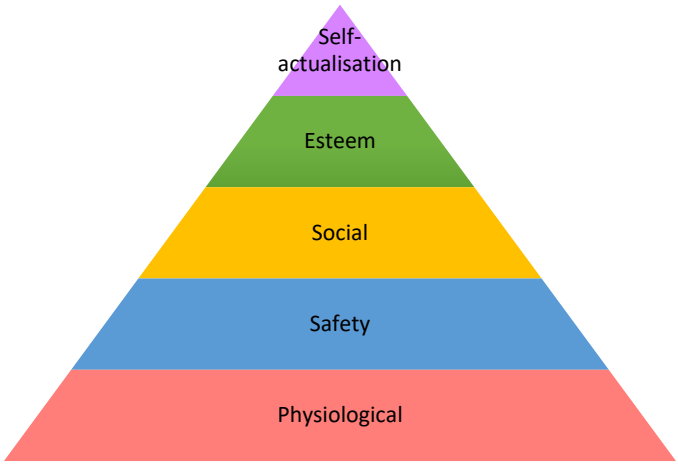
Need theories of motivation

→ People with unfulfilled needs will be motivated to initiate action to satisfy them, in a series of sequential steps.

→ Higher needs become dominant as lower ones become satisfied.

Maslow's Hierarchy of needs

- Physiological: The basic needs that people must fulfil in order to survive. E.g. Hunger, thirst, sex etc.
- Safety: The need for security, stability, freedom from physical and psychological harm and fear.
- Social: Originally referred to as 'love' needs. Relate to the need for affiliation and close relationships with others.
- Esteem: May be divided into 2 parts. The need for mastery of tasks, striving for personal accomplishment and competence. The second refers to the need for reputation and prestige i.e. the esteem of others.
- Self- Actualization: The need for people to fulfil their potential and to become all that they can possibly be.



→ Theory implies that in order to motivate an individual, it is necessary to:

1. Promote motivation to fulfil higher order needs by ensuring that the lower order needs (pay, job security, support) are fulfilled through work design.
2. Identify ways in which the work tasks can fulfil the higher order needs, thereby helping individuals to be motivated to work on those tasks.

→ Not much evidence supports that this theory works, however it is still useful in the way that the needs are grouped.

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Alderfer ERG theory

→ Simplification of Maslow's model
→ Categorised 3 basic human needs
→ No hierarchical structure. People are consistently motivated by all three sets pf needs simultaneously, but to varying degrees at different times.

1 Existence needs- Like Physiological and Safety needs.
2 Relatedness needs- Social needs and the need for prestige and reputation.
3 Growth needs- Needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation.

Herzberg's 2 factor theory

→ Different emphasis to Maslow and Alderfer.
→ Researched factors that promoted satisfaction and dissatisfaction- termed Hygiene factors and Motivators.

- Hygiene Factors: (Extrinsic Factors) Pay, quality of supervision, work conditions, company policy and procedures. When not met = dissatisfaction.
- Motivators: (Intrinsic Motivators) Achievement, advancement and promotion, recognition, nature of work and responsibility. When met = satisfaction.

→ The removal of job characteristics that are dissatisfying does not promote satisfaction or motivation.
→ Need to provide motivators and opportunity for intrinsically rewarding experiences.

Motivation as a Trait

McClelland's theory of motivation:

→ People are motivated to fulfil different needs (individual differences).
→ Motivated by trait-like inner needs:
- Need for **Achievement** (nAch)- drive to excel and achieve success.
- Need for **Affiliation** (nAff)- develop close and meaningful interpersonal relationships.
- Need for **Power** (nPow)- need to control or influence the behaviour of others.

→ People differ in the extent to which they are motivated by the 3 needs.
→ Developed through life experiences and childhood development.

Atkinson: Achievement Motivation

→ Extension of McClelland's Theory considering perceptions of task difficulty.
→ Achievement motivation a product of 3 factors:
  - A person's level of nAch.

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- Individual perceptions of the probability of success in the task.
- Intrinsic rewards associated with accomplishment.

→ Chance of success should be about 50/50

→ Perceive the task as challenging but still achievable.

→ The link between success and effort differentiates the need for achievement from general ambition.

Cognition and Motivation

The ways that people think about their work and work environment and how this affects motivation.

Vroom's Expectancy theory

Think about something that you want in your life that could feasibly be provided through working hard. To gain something important, you have probably made the following decisions…

- I really want this outcome.
- By performing well, I can get access to this outcome.
- By working hard, I will be able to perform well, so work hard is what I will do to get access to the outcome.

According to Vroom's expectancy theory, there are 3 basic factors that determine work effort. (VIE)

1. **Valence:** The desirability of an outcome to an individual. How much they value the expected outcome.
2. **Instrumentality:** The perceived probability that the effective performance will result in the desired outcome.
3. **Expectancy:** The perceived probability that effort will result in the required level of performance.

F=V x I x E

Effort of Force= Valence x Instrumentality x Expectancy

Implications: Managers need to ensure that people perceive work will lead to desirable outcomes, and that these can be accessed.

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Goal Setting Theory

→ One of the most influential motivational theories proposed by **Locke and Latham**.

→ "Does goal setting affect a person's performance on a task? … The answer is YES!

- What types of features of goals is necessary for high levels of motivation?
- Why do goals motivate people?
- Under what conditions?

Goal setting and Job performance

→ Goals must be **specific and challenging**. I.e. Not a 'do your best' goal.

→ Motivating goals must be **measurable**. An outcome that indicates the accomplishment of a goal.

→ Goals must be **realistic, attainable, and time-bound**. Realistic goals in a realistic time-frame.

Why do goals motivate people and promote performance?

→ Goals direct attention and effort towards activities that are relevant for achieving that goal.

→ Goal setting energizes behaviour.

→ Goals induce persistence and prolonged effort.

→ Influences the acquisition and use of task relevant knowledge and strategies that increase the chance of success.

Under what conditions do goals lead to motivation and performance?

→ When individuals are committed to their goals.

→ When feedback on progress is provided. Allows the person to adjust effort according to results.

→ The relationship between goal setting and performance is the strongest for low complexity tasks. As tasks become more complex the ability to discover and use appropriate strategies and skills becomes more of a motivator.

→ When situational constraints do not interfere I.e. aspects of work and organisational design beyond a person's control.

Managerial Implications: How does management increase people's commitment towards their goals?

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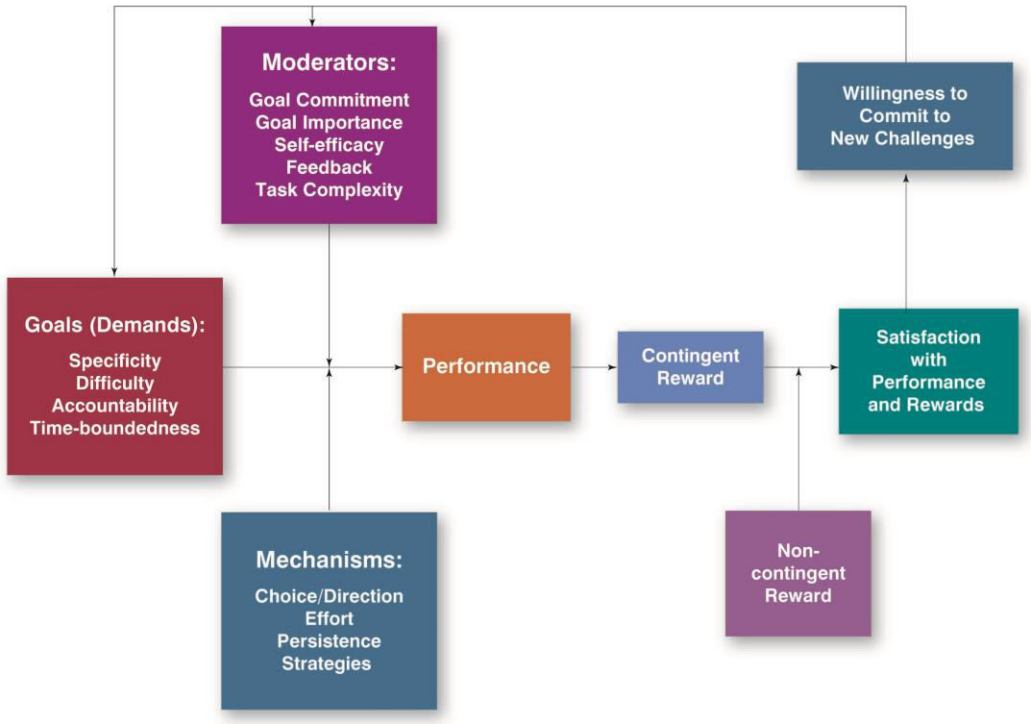

Goal Orientation: Individual difference

1. **Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)**

- View situations as an opportunity for self-discovery and self-expression.
- Focus: Developing competence.
- To: Experience learning and growth.
- Beliefs: Ability can be developed.
- Response pattern: Adaptive

"In the dust of defeat as well as the laurels of victory there is glory to be found if one has done his best." – Eric Lidell (Chariots of Fire)

2. **Performance Goal Orientation (PGO)**

- View situations as ego threatening or enhancing.
- Focus: Prove competence.
- To: Obtain favourable evaluations from others (external referent)
- Beliefs: Ability is fixed.
- Response pattern: Maladaptive.

"If I can't win, I won't run!" -Harold Abrahams (Chariots of Fire)

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Treating people fairly: Justice and Equity

→ Being treated unfairly can hurt, and be demotivating.

→ The need for fairness and justice seems to be universal.

→ People's perceptions of what is fair or not fair differs.

Equity Theory- Adams

- People examine their inputs and outputs and then compare them with others.
- Compare to treatment in a previous job.
- Compare to people in the same position as themselves in another company.

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes}_{\text{Self}}}{\text{Inputs}_{\text{Self}}} = \frac{\text{Outcomes}_{\text{Others}}}{\text{Inputs}_{\text{Others}}}$$ **EQUITY**

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes}_{\text{Self}}}{\text{Inputs}_{\text{Self}}} < \frac{\text{Outcomes}_{\text{Others}}}{\text{Inputs}_{\text{Others}}}$$ **INEQUITY due to under-reward**

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes}_{\text{Self}}}{\text{Inputs}_{\text{Self}}} > \frac{\text{Outcomes}_{\text{Others}}}{\text{Inputs}_{\text{Others}}}$$ **INEQUITY due to over-reward**

Organisational Justice

→ When faced with inequity people try to restore it.

Three kinds of justice perceptions:

1. Distributive Justice: Extent to which a person feels fairly rewarded for the work they provide, in relation to others.
2. Procedural Justice: Targeted towards the organisational systems used to determine how rewards are distributed.
3. Interactional Justice:

- Interpersonal Justice- The extent to which people feel treated with respect and dignity.
- Informational Justice- The ways in which decisions or procedures at work are communicated and explained.

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Job Design and Motivation

→ For some people the content and nature of work is all they need to motivate them.

- Sense of personal responsibility to the outcomes of their work.
- Meaningfulness concerns people's sense of purpose about work.
- Knowledge of results is where individuals should be able to determine how well they are performing.

→ Hackman and Oldham identify 5 job characteristics that promote the above 3 states.

1. Skill Variety: The extent to which people are required to draw on a diverse set of job skills and abilities. Meaningful work requires that people use their capabilities.
2. Task Identity: The extent to which a job allows people to complete a whole, identifiable piece of work, the outcome of which they can perceive.
3. Task Significance: The extent to which the output of work has an impact on others, either people at work, or outside such as service/product users.
4. Autonomy: Freedom to decide how to work and to accomplish goals. Autonomy at work is central to developing a sense of personal responsibility.
5. Feedback: Performance feedback is critical for enabling people to gain knowledge of the results of their work.

Practical Application Strategies

Strategy 1: Remove sources of demotivation and treat people fairly.
Strategy 2: Ensure an abundance of valued outcomes of work.
Strategy 3: Set people goals and objectives.
Strategy 4: Give people feedback.
Strategy 5: Design jobs in ways that make them rewarding to people.

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Human Resource Management Interventions

Theme 5: Learning Outcomes

- ✓ Reflect on the **complimentary relationship** between the **HR function** and the role of **Industrial Psychology** with regard to sustainable organisational performance.
- ✓ Understand the role of the HR function in implementing human resource interventions.
- ✓ Discuss the link between the HR function and the overall organisational strategy with special focus on the following HR activities/practices:
    - **Recruitment and selection**
    - **Learning, training and development**
- ✓ Understand the importance of **job analysis** and **competency modelling**.
- ✓ Explain the use and importance of **utility analyses** in evaluating the success of the selection process.
- ✓ Explain the concepts of **validity and reliability** within the context of assessment and selection.
- ✓ Describe **diversity and fairness issues** in selection, and list relevant South African legislation.
- ✓ Understand the process (cycle) and implementation of learning, training and development:
    - Learning and Development Needs Assessment
    - Learning and Development Interventions
    - Training Evaluation
- ✓ Explain how **understanding of the learning theories** helps with the development of training and development interventions.
- ✓ Describe the **factors** that determine **learning, training and development success**.

Defined as:

→ The term Human Resources Management (HRM) interventions or simply HR interventions refers to the activities, practices and/or decisions by HR practitioners in partnership with line managers, that have the potential to make important contributions to improving people management processes and systems in business, resulting in better performance and effectiveness, and more positive psychological and physical health.

→ IO Psychology provides scientific explanations that informs the HR interventions (Theme 1).

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HR Interventions: Flow and Stock

Milkovich and Boundreau distinguishes between two broad categories of human resource management interventions:

- Interventions aimed at the flow of employees in, through and out of the organization.
- Interventions aimed at the quality/nature of employees in their current positions.

Recruitment and Selection

→ Competitive advantage lies in the ability of an organization to attract, recruit and retain people especially in this era of globalization and increased competition.

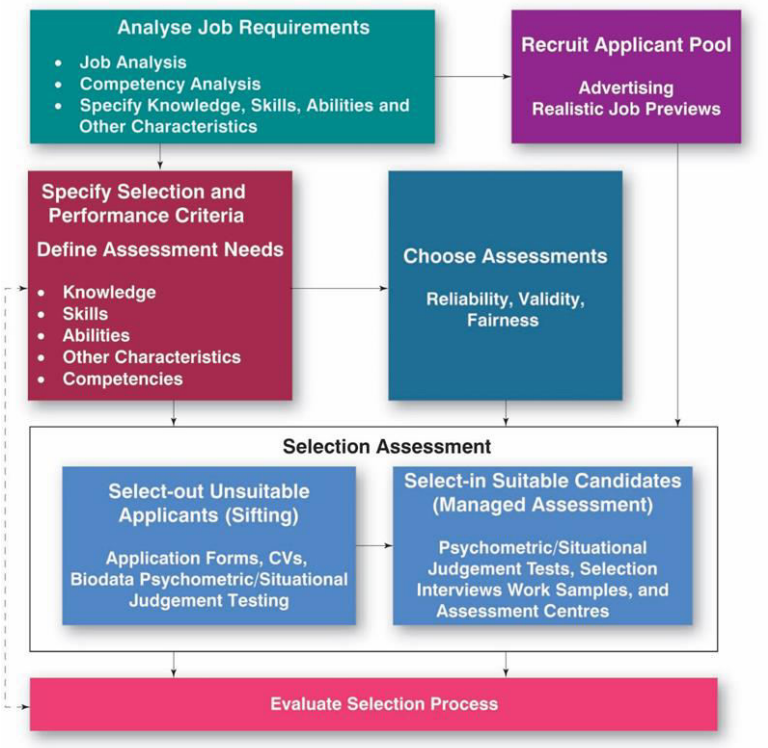
→ An effective approach to recruitment and selection should have the following characteristics:

- Evidence based- Research and empirical evidence.
- Systematic- logical process.
- Strategic- within context of HR function and needs of the organization.

→ The recruitment and selection process should be aligned to other HR practices. E.g. Training and development and Compensation management in order to have a lasting impact.

→ Should also encompass the influence of other organizational factors such as culture and leadership.

→ The figure below shows the systematic approach to selection, following a series of sequential steps.



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→ Realizing the potential for success depends on a variety of HR processes including job design, management and leadership, training and socialization, and performance and management systems. These interact to determine whether the individuals who are selected will go on to perform effectively in the organization.

Systematic recruitment and selection: the role of the IO Psychologist

→ I-O Psychologists contribute significantly to recruitment and selection through the development, improvement and evaluation of any array of assessment approaches and methodologies. (Assessments and psychometrics).

→ The aim is to reduce subjectivity of the processes.

Job Analysis

The systematic process of discovery of the nature of a job by dividing it into smaller units, where the process results in one or more written products with the goal of describing what is done on the job or what capabilities are needed to effectively perform the job.

→ The purpose is to determine the characteristics of the job and to use them to determine the knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAOs) that should be demonstrated by the employee.

End products:

- Job description- Main tasks and responsibilities of the job.
- Job (person) specification- minimum KSAOs required to perform the job.

→ Use of scientific methods for job analysis is very critical- No unfair discrimination.

→ See a large shift from traditional job analysis to competency modelling or profiling.

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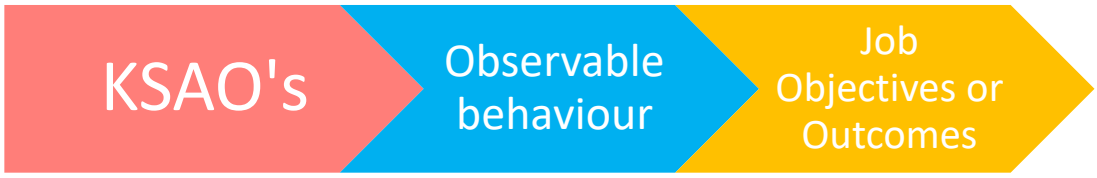
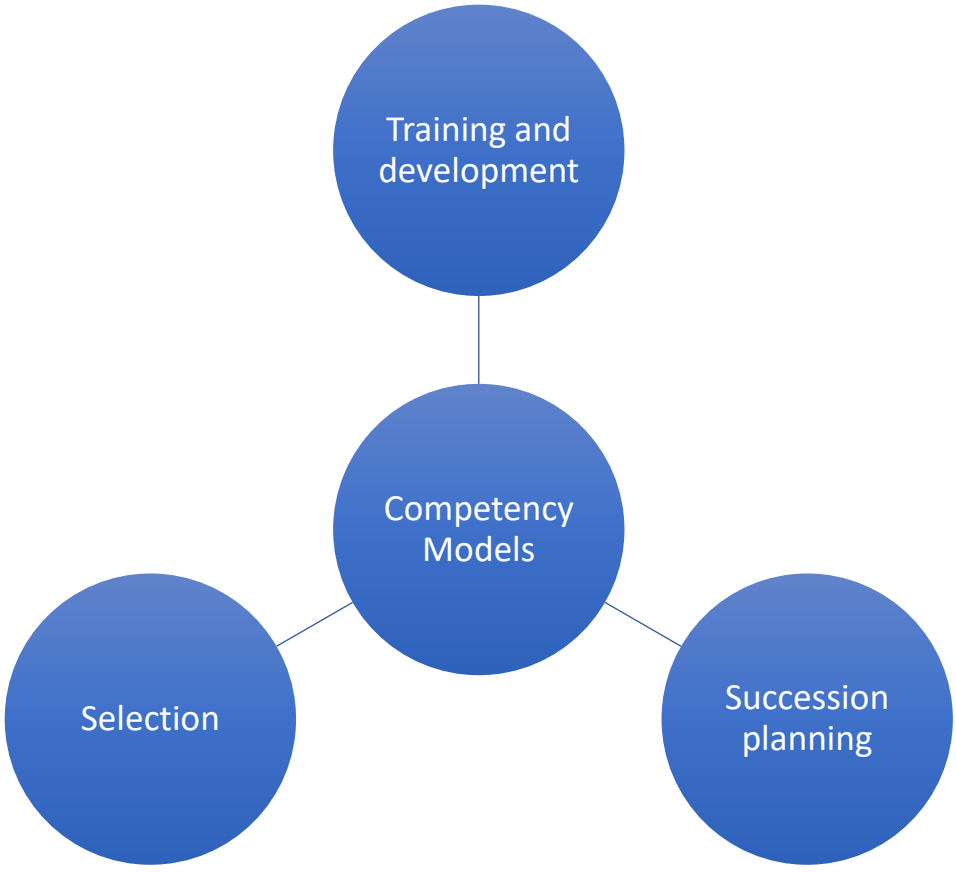
→ Competencies and Competency modelling: Refers to the process of identifying competencies for a specific job or job family, or the construction of an overall framework for an organization. The value of competencies is that they are observable, measurable, linked to job and organizational outcomes, trainable, and integrates different HR practices. Observable workplace behaviors instrumental to the outcomes.

→ KSAOs: The person's characteristics driving their competencies.



E.g: Store assistant



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Recruitment: Attracting people to work

The process of acquiring applicants who are available and qualified to fill positions in the organization.

Key steps in recruitment activities:

- **Recruitment objectives**: Identifying the specific recruitment need, the kinds of individuals to be recruited, the time frame, and the required levels of performance and retention needed.
- **Strategy development**: Working out a strategy for the recruitment activity. Who and where to recruit, how to reach targeted people and what to communicate during the recruitment.
- **Recruitment activities**: Specific methods of recruitment to attract the applicant pool. Who will do the recruitment (Outsourced?), nature of information to be conveyed, and the use of various media.

Selection: Assessing and hiring people.

→ Defined as choosing from a group of applicants the individual best suited for a particular position.

Must be reliable and valid selection method *NB Theme 3

→ Reliable- Consistent over time. Does the process yield the same results each time?

→ Validity- Does it measure what it set out to measure?

Selection Assessment Methods

→ Different assessments have different purposes at different stages of selection.

1. Early stage assessments are designed to select out unsuitable applicants.
   - CV's
   - Application forms
   - Biodata- several questions that specify on past behavior.

2. Psychometric testing
   - Cognitive ability
   - Personality (Bias)
   - Emotional intelligence

3. Selection Interviewing- judgements based on oral responses
   - Behavioral based interviews- Based on key job requirements and often ask interviewees to describe past experiences.

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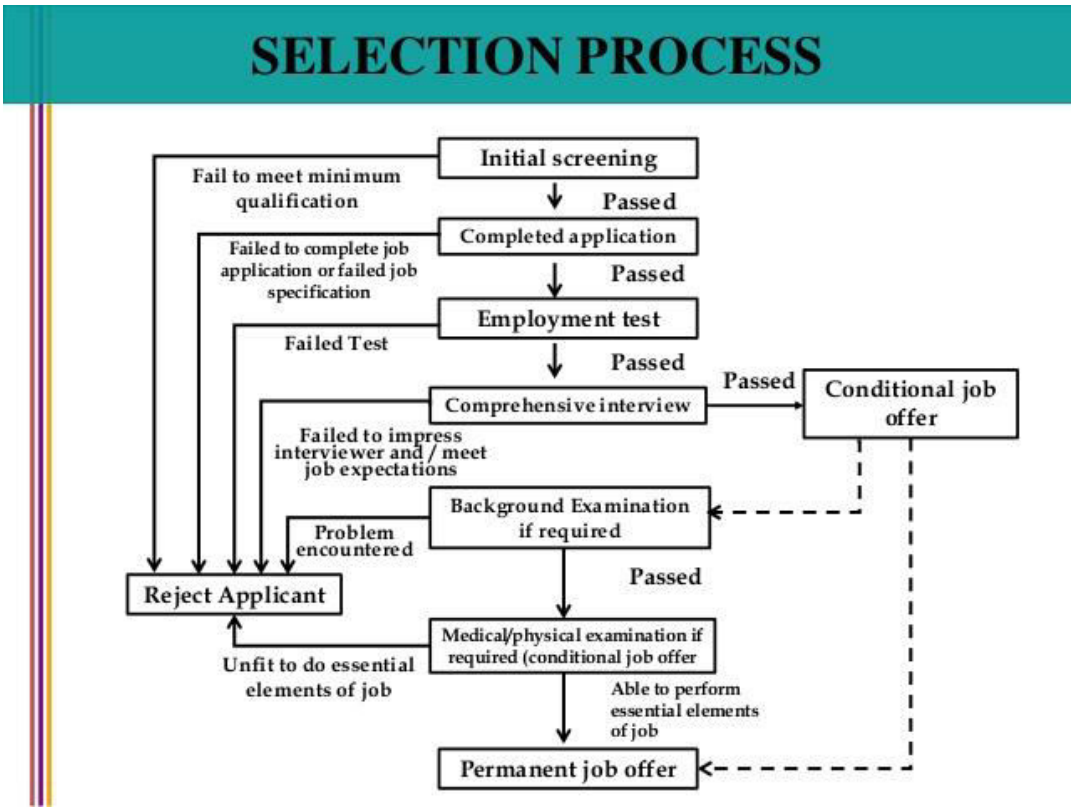
- Competency based interviews- Provided a certain situation, how did the interviewee react?

4. Assessment centers- in-depth assessment
   - Multi-trait and multi-method approach
   - Multiple different exercises, role-play, multiple assessors.



Utility Analysis

→ Aims to estimate the financial benefits of improvements in selection procedures.

→ Utility is a primary function of:

- The validity of the process (i.e. The relationship between the predictor and the criterion)
- The selection ratio (Number of job positions to the number of applicants)
- The monetary value of different levels of job performance.

Fairness in selection:

- Apart from reliability and validity, fairness is another critical consideration in selection.
- Care should be taken to address: **Adverse Impact**

→ Could be an indication of indirect discrimination, while not necessarily the case

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→ When one demographic group scores lower than others on a particular assessment…Therefore smaller proportion of candidates from that group will make it through the selection process.
→ A characteristic or property of the assessment and NOT the assessor causing indirect discrimination.
→ NB on its own adverse impact does not necessarily constitute unfairness.

- Criterion Validity: The extent to which an assessment predicts job performance.
- Differential validity: Estimates of job performance are different depending on the demographic group of the candidate.

South African Context:

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.
- Labor Relations Act No66 of 1995 (Amended)
- Employment Equity Act No55 of 1998 (Amended January 2014)

Learning, Training and Development

→ Serves a strategic function in organizations.
→ Linked to strategic performance management as it is concerned with facilitating the development of people in ways that enable them to perform effectively.
→ Learning and development are also linked to other organization-wide strategic issues:
  - Provide overviews of KSOAs.
  - Provide information about interventions needed to achieve strategic goals.
  - Central to the implementation of organizational change, helping managers to identify potential barriers to behavior and performance change.

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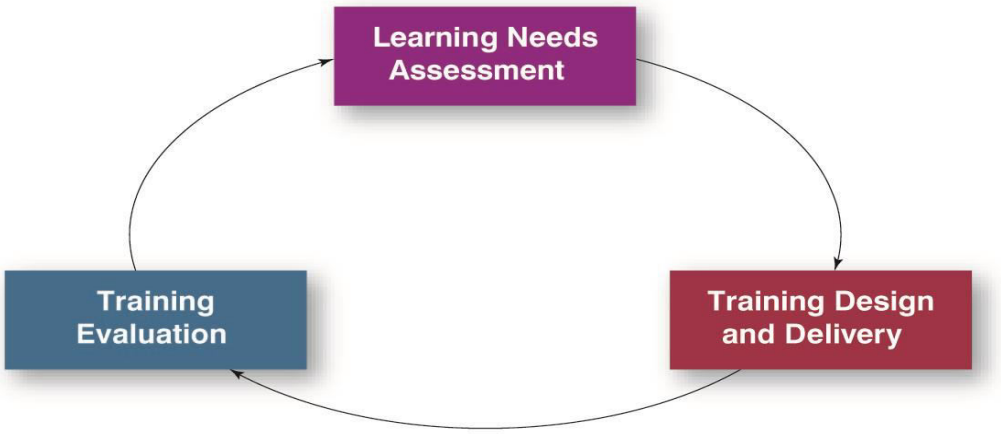
→ Overall the learning and development process follows a cyclical process made up of 3 phases:



Learning and Development Needs assessment

→ This phase is designed to identify where learning and development interventions are required in the organization.

→ Comprises of 4 steps:

1. Organizational needs analysis

- Establish the level of learning and development (L&D) support in the organization.
- Understand the strategic direction of the organization and align L&D to strategy.

2. Job and position analysis

- Difference between a job and a position
    - Job: Defined by the nature of work that is carried out by people with the same or similar job titles.
    - Position: Refers to a role in a specific organization, including duties and activities that are specific to the position.
- Relevant positions in the organization need to be identified and examined, including their nature and objectives.
- Working context are also examined e.g. Whether jobs are individual or team based.

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3. Task, KSAO and Competency analysis

- Defining the tasks required in the target positions, and based on task requirements, defining the KSAOs and competencies required.

4. Person analysis

- Returns the focus to learning and development of individual people working in the organization.
- Determining the gaps between the KSAO requirements of a position (job description) and the current KSAO profile on the job incumbent.
- Performance appraisal information is often used to determine the current KSAOs and competency levels of employees.

Learning and development interventions

→ To address the gaps in KSAOs that have been identified.
→ Effective interventions require an understanding of how people learn (learning theories)
→ Behavioral and social Learning theories & Cognitive learning

Behavioral and social learning:

Skinner emphasized the role of positive and negative enforcement. Bandura extended behaviorism to encompass two additional steps:

- **Observational learning:** The idea that people learn by observing role models.
- **Affect and cognition**: Behavior is generated from interacting cognitions and affective responses that result from situational perceptions.

Would facilitate learning in the following ways:

- Observational learning- individuals learn new behaviors from the trainer.
- Behavioral procedures might be practiced in simulations as part of the training or development activities.
- Affect and cognition would also be targeted, perhaps by explaining the value of new learning.

Cognitive learning:

- Emphasizing knowledge development.
- Designing activities to facilitate problem solving based on the acquired knowledge.
- Using more difficult problem solving scenarios to bolster and extend problem solving strategies.

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Techniques and methods of training and development

- Lectures
- Lecture and discussion
- Demonstrations
- Simulations
- Role-play
- Development centres
- Case studies
- On-job training
- Coaching
- Mentoring
- E-learning

Training Evaluation

Organizations need to determine the impacts and benefits of training and learning interventions: A cost- benefit analysis. WHY?

Evaluation focuses on two issues:

→ **Defining evaluation criteria** to judge the effectiveness of training.

→ **Designing systematic methods** and procedures for training evaluation.

Widely used method proposed by Kirkpatrick measures training against 4 levels of criteria:

1. Reactions: Trainee attitudes about the training they have received.
2. Learning: Knowledge, skills and abilities that trainees have learned. These can be assessed through tests or assessments of post-training learning.
3. Behavior: Changes in trainee behavior at work.
4. Results: Organization or team-level performance outcomes.

→ Why does training and development succeed in some situations and fail in others?

→ Two perspectives are considered when analyzing the many factors that can lead to success or failure of training.

- Individual difference factors (Theme 3)
- Training transfer and organizational factors

Individual differences

→ **Trainee characteristics:** Abilities, personality traits, demographics (such as age), interests and values.

→ **Intervening mechanisms:** Affect how individuals process information, focus attention, direct their effort and manage their affect during training.

→ **Attribute-treatment interactions**: I.e. Interactions between learning methods and individual differences.

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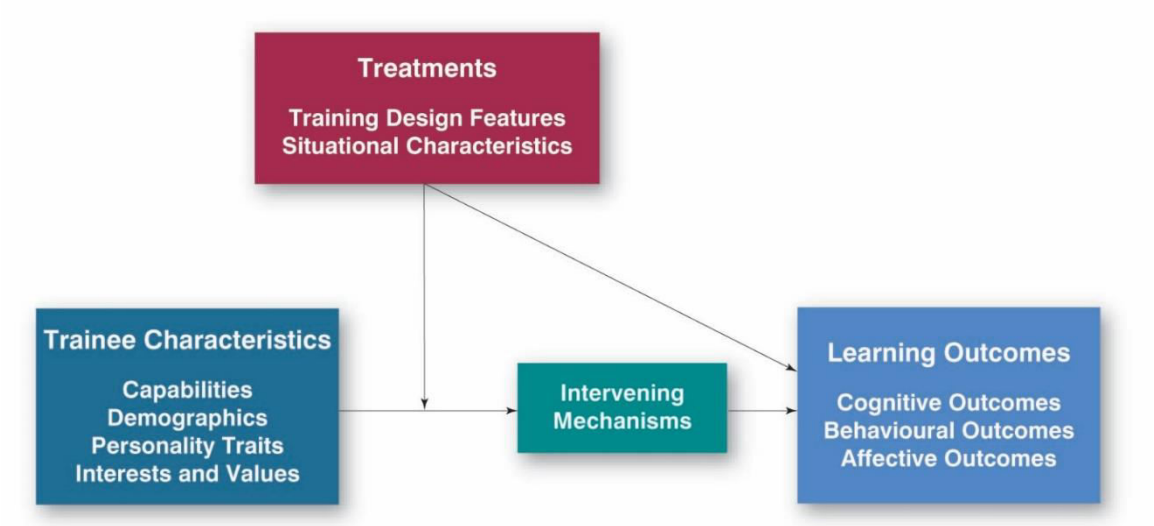
→ The figure below shows the pathways from individual differences to leaning outcomes. Gully and Chen.

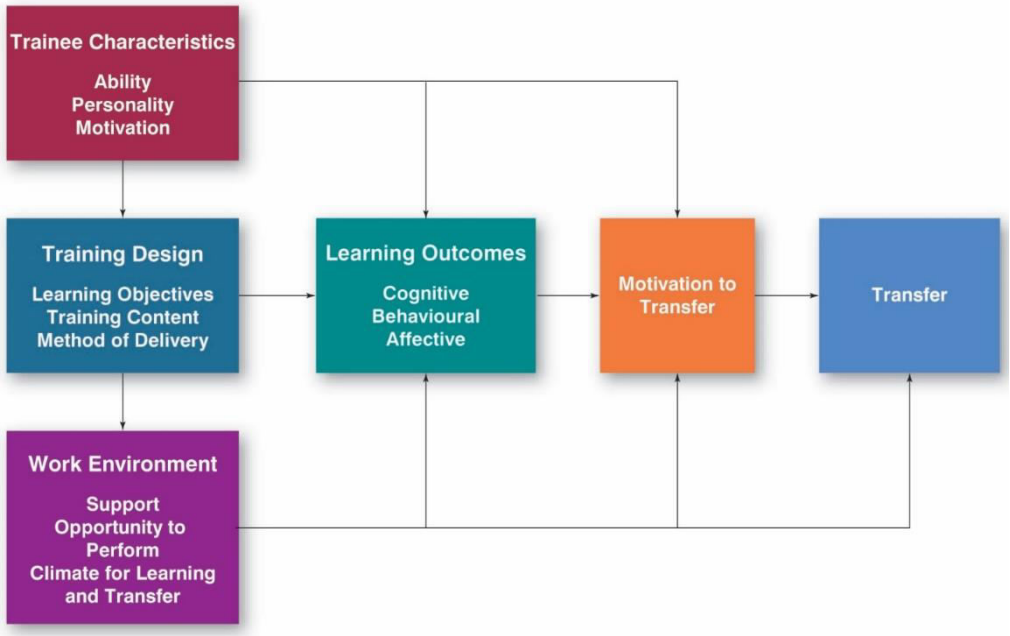


Training transfer

Learning interventions are only really considered successful if the learning that has occurred is transferred to the working environment. No guarantee that the learning will be applied by the trainee in a work situation.

There are numerous factors that determine learning transfer:

→ Trainee characteristics [individual differences]
→ Training design
→ Work environment
→ The learning outcomes (behavioral, cognitive and affective)
→ Motivation to transfer



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Safety, Stress and Health at Work

Theme 6: Learning Outcomes

- ✓ Understand the concepts of **occupational health and safety**.
- ✓ Identify the key **causes of accidents at work** and how to reduce them.
- ✓ Define the concepts of **stress and engagement** at work.
- ✓ Identify the **key causes** of stress and engagement.
- ✓ Understand how **to reduce stress and increase engagement** at work.
- ✓ Understand **how health is affected** by work factors.
- ✓ Identify ways in which health can be **protected and promoted** at work.

Occupational Health and Safety

The International Labour Organization (ILO) and the World Health Organization (WHO) define occupational health as 'the promotion and maintenance of the highest degree of physical, mental and social well-being of workers in all occupations by preventing departures from health, controlling risks, and adapting work to people (physiologically and psychologically) and people to their jobs.

Human factors that impact on Health and Safety: The term human factors refer to environmental, organisational and job factors, and human and individual characteristics which influence behaviour at work in a way which can affect health and safety. These factors can be divided into 4 Main Groups which are further subdivided:

→ **Organisational / Managerial**

1. Safety Culture
2. Managers' Leadership
3. Communication

→ **Workgroup/ Team**

4. Teamwork - structure/ processes (dynamics)
5. Team leadership (Supervisors)

→ **Individual Worker**

6. Situation awareness
7. Decision making
8. Stress
9. Fatigue

→ **Work Environment**

10. Work environment and hazards

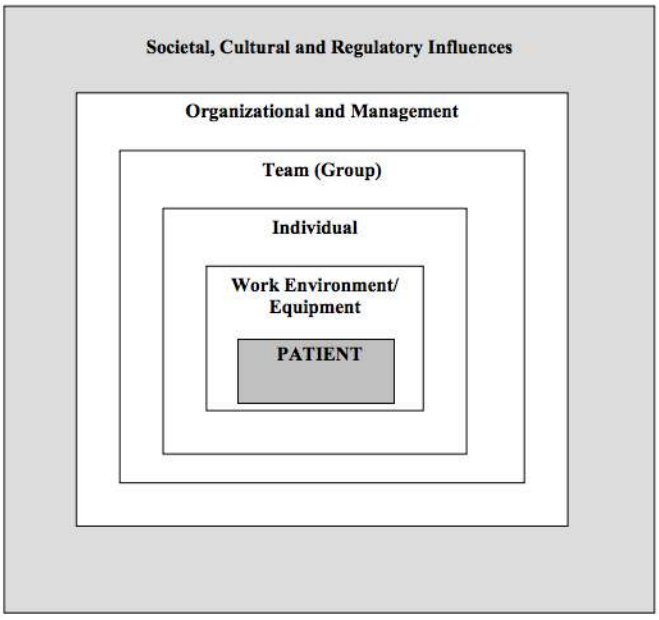

Figure 1. Organisational and human factors in sociotechnical systems (from Moray, 2000)

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→ Organizational and Management Factors

1. Safety Culture

- It is the product of individual and group values, attitudes, perceptions, competencies and patterns of behavior that determine the commitment to, and the style and proficiency of, an organization's health and safety management.
- Also referred to as 'safety climate', it influences what is the normal behavior of workers in a particular work unit in relation to taking risks, prioritization of safety, following rules, speaking up about safety.
- Any safety intervention should follow a safety culture assessment.

2. Manager (senior and middle)'s leadership style

- Leadership is defined as**:** The process of influencing people towards achievement of organizational goals.
- Particular styles of leadership are associated with better safety behaviors by workers and more favourable organizational safety performance such as decreased accident rates and increased safety compliance.
- The appropriateness of a particular style of leadership, and of certain leadership behaviors, may differ across levels of leadership and across different work settings.
- Most recommended managers' safety leadership model is the transactional/ transformational model (Bass 1998). This model conceptualizes the basis of leadership as a transactional relationship between leader and follower- where the leader sets agreed goals, monitors performance, and administer reinforcement accordingly. The transformational leader produces above expected performance levels because they are charismatic, inspirational, stimulating and considerate.

3. Communication

- Essential to workplace efficiency and for the delivery of high quality and safe work. It provides knowledge, institutes relationships, establishes predictable behavior patterns and is vital for leadership and team coordination.
- Communication problems can lead to errors which can occur as individuals fail to receive or to pass on information or communicate incorrect information.
- Three types:
    - System failures: Necessary channels for communication do not exist or are not functioning.
    - Transmission failures: Channels exist, but the necessary information is not transmitted E.g. Sending unclear or ambiguous messages.
    - Reception failures: Where the necessary channels exist, and the correct message is sent but the message is misinterpreted or unable to be received.

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→ Work Group and team factors

4. Team Work- structure/processes

- A team is defined as: a distinguishable set of two or more people who interact, dynamically, interdependently, and adaptively toward a common and valued goal/objective/mission, who have each been assigned specific roles or functions to perform.
- Teamwork, communication and leadership are all critical to a safe environment.
- Good teamwork can help to reduce safety problems and it can improve team members' morale and well-being, as well as team viability.
- The roles each member takes can greatly affect the effectiveness of the team.

5. Team Leadership (Supervisor)

- Team leaders (supervisors) practices found to decrease the number of minor accidents and positively influence workers' safety climate perceptions.
- Team leaders, also called supervisors or front line managers, are typically responsible for a small group of people working together to achieve a common task.
- Transformational leadership behaviours (explained above) of supervisors have related to fewer occupational injuries (Zohar, 2003).
- Good communication, building trust and caring about the team members, as well as setting and reinforcing safety standards all important especially in the presence of strong production or cost-reduction goals.

→ Individual Worker

→ Psychological and physiological factors which can influence workers' behaviours that contribute to safety outcomes.

→ Main focus is on non-technical skills (cognitive, social and personal resource skills) that complement technical skills, and contribute to safe and efficient performance.

6. Situation Awareness

- Refers to an individual's 'perception of the elements in the environment within the volume of time and space, the comprehension of their meaning, and the projection of their status in the near future. (Endsley, 1995, p. 36).
- Also referred to as perception or attention.
  - ! What is going on?
  - ! So what?
  - ! Now what?
- Involves continuously monitoring what is happening in the immediate task environment in order to understand what is going on and what might happen in the next minutes or hours.
- The worker needs to have a good 'mental model' representing the status of their current task and the risks within the surrounding work environment.

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- Situation awareness extends to the team level and a shared understanding of ongoing tasks is a core factor for good team performance (Wright & Endsley, 2008).
- Situational awareness and concentration are diminished by fatigue and stress and can be affected by interruptions and distractions.

7. Decision Making

- The process of reaching a judgement or choosing an option, sometimes called a course of action, to meet the needs of a given situation (Flin et al, 2008, p.41).
- On task (or operational) decision making is a critical component of workplace safety in relation to minimizing errors.
- Decision making can be affected by fatigue and stress.

8. Stress

- Is the 'adverse reaction people have to excessive pressure or other types of demand placed upon them'. (HSE, 2005 p1)
- Stress is determined by the balance between perceptions of the demands being placed upon the person (e.g. workload) against how she or he judges their available resources to cope with these demands (e.g. experience, skills).
- Stress at work is linked to workplace safety, such as rates of accidents (Cooper & Clarke, 2003).
- Two types of stress: acute (intense and sudden) and chronic (long term).

9. Fatigue

- The state of tiredness that is associated with long hours of work, prolonged periods without sleep, or requirements to work at times that are "out of synch" with the body's biological or circadian rhythm' (Caldwell & Caldwell, 2003).
- Sleep is essential for our wellbeing and lack of sleep is a prime cause of the experience of tiredness or fatigue.
- Most humans require an average of about eight hours sleep per night to function effectively.
- Fatigue can have consequences for both the safety and productivity of workers.
- It has detrimental effects on cognitive performance which can fall to nearly 40% of baseline after two nights without sleep. A loss of two hours' sleep can have detrimental effects on the performance of psychomotor tasks comparable to effects of drinking two or three beers.
- Communication and social skills are also affected by sleep deprivation.

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→ Work Environment Factors

→ Equipment design is an important area of concern for safety (readability and usability of equipment, for example).

→ Factors relating to equipment design and usability fall mainly within the domain of ergonomics.

10. Work Environment (Workplace Hazards)

- Workplace hazards are a set of circumstances or a situation (risk) that could harm a person's interest, such as their health or welfare (Croskerry et al, 2008, p409).
- Risk modelling and workplace hazard analysis are used to reduce workplace hazards.

Stress and Strain at work

→ Long term impacts of stress causing overall great economic cost and human suffering.

→ Main causes of stress reported are work-pressure, lack of managerial support and work-related violence and bullying.

What is stress- Cause, Process or Outcome?

- The first model of stress was the Fight or Flight model by Canon (1929) – for acute stress. Instantaneous reaction of a body to an exterior stressor- E.g. The feeling before a big presentation.
- The second model was the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) model by Seyle (1956) – effect of sustained or chronic stressors on health. He used the term 'stress' to describe a non-specific response of the body to any demand made on it.
- Seyle distinguished between *distress* (harmful effects of demands) and *eustress* (the enjoyment of challenging demands).
    - Three stages of stressor effect:
    - Stage 1(Alarm stage): body produces an alarm reaction and secrets stress hormones
    - Stage 2 (Resistance stage): Individual tries to adapt and cope
    - Stage 3 (Exhaustion stage): resistance decreases (burnout, illness, death)
- In recent years, more sophisticated models have been developed:
- Kahn and Byoserie (1992) presented a model of *stressors*, *moderators*, *perceptions* and *cognitions* and the consequences thereof (i.e. *strains)*:
    - Causes (stressors)
    - Outcomes (Strain)
    - Processes that mediate or moderate the relationship between stressors and strain
- The following diagram is an illustration of the Kahn and Byoserie Work stress theoretical model.

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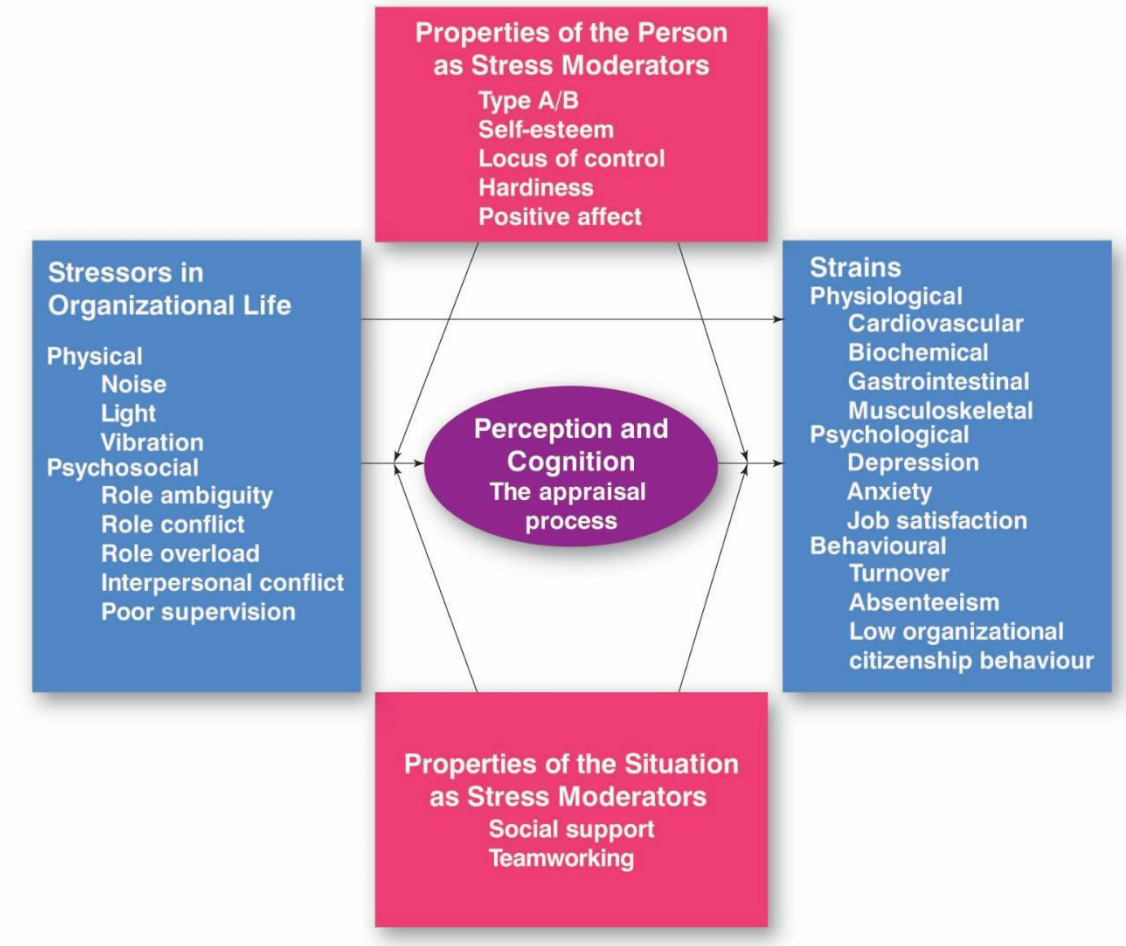

Stressors: Factors in the work environment that lead to strain

1. **Physical Stressors**

→ Noise
→ Temperature (too low or too high)
→ Physical demands (continuous lifting and vibration)

2. **Psychosocial Stressors**

→ Role conflict: Describes a role where there are competing goals such as between quality of care and costs in health care .
→ Role ambiguity: The degree to which a worker is unclear about the expectations of his/her own, or other's roles.
→ Role overload (Workload): Quantitative work load (the number of tasks, customers, products to be dealt with) and qualitative workload (complexity of the task).
→ Interpersonal conflict: Especially chronic conflict as opposed to acute (passing), which affects both team performance and personal well-being.
→ Poor supervision: Controlling, bullying and neglecting
→ Work pace: Speed of the line on an assembly line vs. time (flight or call centres). Tasks with high repetition and short time cycles likely to result in repetitive strain.

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→ Work schedule: Shift work known to cause strain to varying degrees (sleep disturbance due to shift rotation).
→ Time rigidity: Flexitime reduces strain – more time spent with family.
→ Perceived control: Includes control over hours, work pace and work environment. The most damaging jobs have a combination of high demands (volume and pace) with low control-Karasek (1979) Demand-Control Model.
  - Focuses on the balance of work between ***demands*** and **control** (decision latitude).
  - Control: the degree of autonomy and discretion for using skills.
  - Demands: workload and intellectual requirements of the job. *High demands* and *low control* leads to health problems (waiters, assembly line workers, computer help desk etc.). *High demands* and *high control promotes* good health (doctors, lawyers and senior managers).
  - *Low demands* and *high control* (e.g. gardener) likely to lead to peaceful and easy life. *Low demands* and *low control* (e.g. Night watchman). Deeply boring 'simply keeping an eye on things…and getting through the night'.
→ Emotional labour: the extent to which individuals at work have to manage their emotions. Supressing emotions (through e.g. *surface acting*) is demanding and associated with burnout, absenteeism, turnover.
→ Task content: Police, ambulance workers, call centre workers.
→ Work-life conflict: Affects well-being: high work-life conflict related to lower job satisfaction, high emotional exhaustion and increased labour turnover.

Strain: Consequences of stressors

Divided into three:

→ Behavioral
→ Psychological
→ Physiological

Behavioral:

1. **Information processing**

- Strain leads to deterioration in memory, recovery time, accuracy and task performance.
- More errors on cognitive tasks (implication for health and safety).

2. **Performance**

- Strain suggested to have an 'inverted U' relationship with performance – performance best at moderate levels of strain (not too low or too high).
- Absenteeism
- Turnover

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- Poor work relations

Psychological:

Burnout: commonly used to describe the psychological consequences of sustained stress at work. Refers to three sub-dimensions of strain. Emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and a sense of ineffectiveness. It is the opposite of engagement.

- Depression
- Family conflict
- Negative attitudes
- Psychological disorders (*next chapter*)
- Decreased job satisfaction

Physiological:

- Sustained stress leads to chronic activation of sympathetic nervous system, leading to *ill health due to excessive amounts of stress hormones circulating in the blood*.
- Stress leads to *gastrointestinal (digestive) problems.*
- *Biochemical* – the stress hormones, cortisol and catecholamine, increase when the individual experiences strain.
- Blood pressure
- Decreased immunity
- Cholesterol
- Headaches
- Prolonged exposure to stress can lead to death.
- Substance abuse (*next chapter*)

Stress Mediators and Moderators

Mediators: Perception and cognition (the appraisal process)

- How we see, think about and interpret the world also affects the stressor-strain relationship.
- In other words, cognitions and perceptions affect the extent to which stressors translate into strain or not.
- Example: giving a public speech.

Moderators: Properties of the person as Stress moderators

Type A/B personality type

- *Personality Type A* describes those people who have a chronic struggle to obtain an unlimited number of poorly defined things from their environment in the shortest period of time and, if possible, against the opposing effects of other things or persons in the environment'(Friedman, 1969).
- *Type B* is described as relaxed, easy-going, patient and calm.

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Locus of control

- Internal locus of control moderates the relationship between stressors and strain (i.e. strong internal locus of control is associated with less strain).

Hardiness

- the extent to which people have orientations of commitment, control and challenge in their approach to their work lives.

Positive affect

- Warm, positive, optimistic people are less likely to be affected by stressors than anxious people.

Social support

- Friends, family and colleagues.

Recovery activities:

- Participating in engaging activities such as sports, cooking and gardening as opposed to passive activities such like TV watching.

Team-working

- Good team working.

French, Caplan and Harrison (1982) Person enrolment (PE) fit model

- The extent to which a person's skills and abilities match the job requirements and their work environment, the less strain will be experienced
- PE fit model has sub-components:

→ **The person-job-fit** – the extent to which the skills, abilities and interests of the individual are compatible with job requirements.

→ **Person-organisation fit** - whether the values of the organisation are consistent with the values of the individual.

<u>There are three broad categories of stress intervention measures:</u>

1. Primary interventions
2. Secondary interventions
3. Tertiary interventions

Primary Interventions:

Stressor directed - aimed at eliminating, modifying or controlling the stressor.

- Ensuring, for instance, the right levels of heat, noise etc. OR
- Problem focused approach – reducing noise, role ambiguity etc.
- Changing appraisals of stressors via cognitive restructuring – through e.g. training to change employees mental models about the stressor.

Secondary Interventions:

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More focused on people's response to stress.Focus is on the employee rather than on changing aspects of the organisation.

Common strategies:

- Training in stress management.
- Nutritional advice.
- Stress inoculation programmes – encouraging them to learn to relax, take physical fitness training.
- Emotion-focused coping strategies – encouraging employees to avoid, minimise or emotionally distance themselves from stressors.
- Training in conflict resolution and negotiation skills.
- Stress inoculation programmes such as relaxation exercises.

Social Support

Four types of social support:

→ Emotional
→ Instrumental
→ Appraisal
→ Informational

1. Emotional Support: shoulder to cry on, an encouraging word and sympathetic understanding of another's emotional pain.
   Involves being an active, open listener without giving advice, direction (just providing the other space for emotional expression).

2. Instrumental support: refers to practical 'doing' support among team members.

3. Appraisal support: helping each other in the process of or interpreting a problem situation.
   Need not involve providing solutions, but rather helping the other person to examine a range of alternative appraisals of any given problem.

4. Informational support: Goes beyond just being warm, empathetic and caring to providing useful information to aid team members.

5. Social Support: Buffer or moderator hypothesis – proposes that social support can buffer people from the effects of strain at work.

Tertiary Interventions:

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- Symptom-directed.
- Focus on helping individuals cope with the consequences of stressors.
- Again focuses on the individual rather than the organisation.
- Examples of interventions:
    - Medical aid (in-house or outsourced)
    - Employee assistance programmes (EAPs)

Job Engagement

- The opposite of burnout.
- Defined as a positive work-related state of fulfilment that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption.
- Affects both individual outcomes (e.g. well-being) and organisational outcomes.
- Predictors of job engagement:
    - *Organisational support*, *job characteristics* & *procedural justice* (Saks, 2006).
    - *Job meaningfulness* in terms of work variety and perceived benefit to the self (self-concept) – (Kahn, 1992)
    - *Perceived fairness* in how the organisation manages people.
- Job engagement is *described by five core elements* (Schaufeli et al, 2002):

→ Urgency
→ Focus
→ Intensity
→ Adaptability
→ Personal initiative

- Job engagement is a consequence of four interacting elements:
    1. **Capacity to engage** – as a result of motivation and autonomy experienced on the job
    2. **Motivation to engage** – as a result of good job design
    3. **Freedom to engage** – presence of support and safety for employees to innovate and take action on their own initiative.
    4. **Focus on the strategy and goals of the organisation** – existence of an alignment between what employees do and the strategic goals of the organisation.

Why is it the organizations ethical social responsibility to ensure a safe, stress-free and healthy workplace??

→ Be able to explain in your own words relating to the above effects of stress, and how stress and injury can be easily avoided.

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Research in Industrial Psychology

Theme 7: Outcomes

- ✓ Justify the **importance** of science in industrial psychology.
- ✓ Explain why the **scientific method** increases the likelihood of valid conclusions; and describe the general steps when applying this method.
- ✓ Distinguish between the **three broad categories** of research.
- ✓ Choose the appropriate **research design**.
- ✓ Compare **qualitative** and **quantitative** research.
- ✓ Distinguish between **descriptive and inferential statistics** and describe the various statistical measures.
- ✓ Apply the concepts of **correlation and regression** to explain a phenomenon/or make decisions.
- ✓ Consider the complexity of human behaviour; and distinguish between **moderators and mediators.**

The need to understand

We as humans are born with a need to understand and make sense of the world around us. We do this for various reasons:

- To survive or master our environment- thus to improve our quality of life.
- Moral obligation or higher calling to look after the earth.
- Curiosity.

What is Science?

Science is defined by its goals and its procedures. All sciences have common goals: the **understanding, prediction and control** of some phenomenon of interest.

All sciences follow common methods. These common methods include:

- → A logical approach to investigation, usually based on theory, a hypothesis, or simply a basic curiosity about an object of interest.
- → Science is dependent on data. These data can be gathered in a laboratory or in the real world (the field). The data gathered are intended to be relevant to the theory, hypothesis, or curiosity that precipitated the investigation.
- → Science must be communicable, open and public. Scientific research is published in journals, reports and books. Because of this, other scientists or people can draw their own conclusions about the research or even replicate the research themselves.

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The scientific method

We are all "scientists" in some sense, in trying to understand how things around us work (including the work environment). We have certain "theories" and beliefs about the world; and through observation and personal subjective experiences we continually alter these "theories". Science however is a more **formal, rigorous approach** in the quest for truthful knowledge.

The scientific method relies on **objectivity** and **rationality**:

- **Objectivity:** Objectivity refers to the methods and procedures we use to gather "evidence" in support of claims (conclusions). Evidence is more objective to the extent that it controls for error. I.e. The method of gathering information is non-biased or is without prejudice and subjectivity.
    - Example: Assume you are trying to determine the reasons for the high resignation rate at an organisation. Describe the methods/procedures that will increase the chances of arriving at a valid conclusion.
    - You will need to conduct interviews or surveys among past and present employees. The research would be irrelevant if you were to only interview current employees who are still satisfied in the organisation- you need to look at all the available information objectively.
- **Rationality:** Rationality refers to the judgement we make concerning the validity of claims. The focus is on the interpretation of the "evidence" and conclusions drawn. Rationality is sought by having claims subjected to evaluation by other experts in the scientific community. This implies that research needs to be open and transparent for it to have any credibility. Part of rationality is to admit the limitations of knowledge claims. It is not so much about which theories are right or wrong, but rather which ones are more plausible than others.

General steps in the scientific method

1. **Research ideas (problems):** We observe the world around us, and we ask, why? For example:

→ Why do some teachers perform better than others?
→ Why do some nurses suffer from burnout and others not?
→ Why do so many people resign from a company?
→ What impact does a certain training programme have?

In science, we refer to these knowledge gaps as problems.

2. **Research questions:** We translate these problems to specific research questions that can be investigated.

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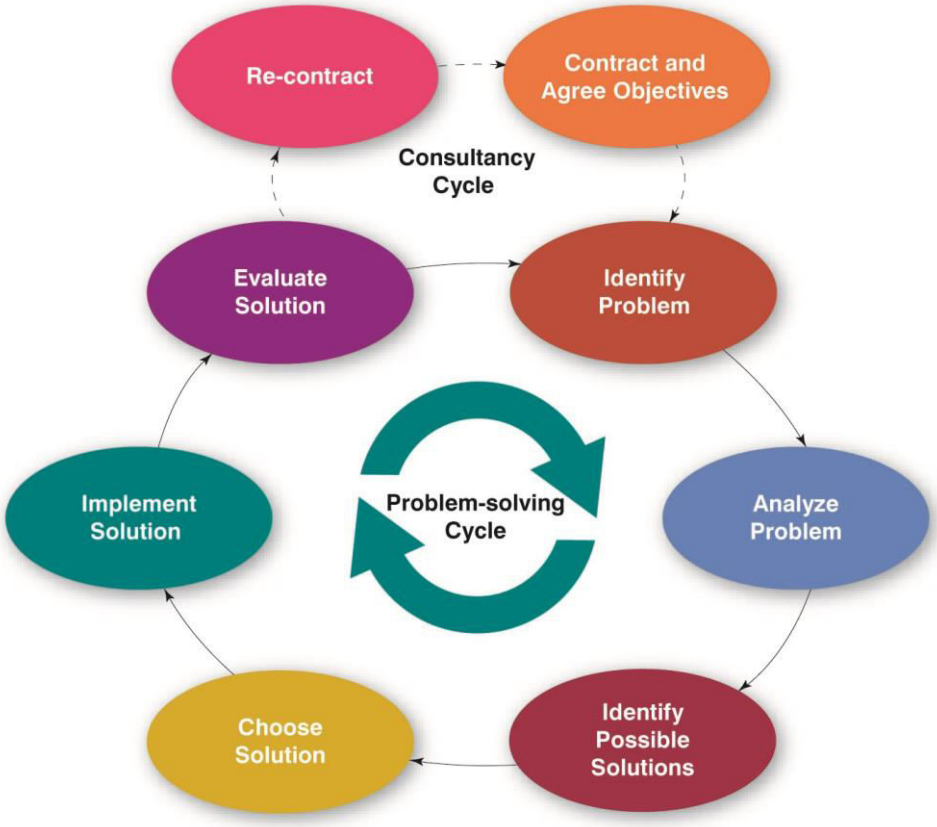
3. **Theory:** Theory refers to that which we already know- that which has been subjected to scientific enquiry. We draw on theory for preliminary explorations and suppositions about the problem under scrutiny.
4. **Hypotheses:** This refers to statements that represent specific, testable claims; including the criteria that will be used to make a verdict about the plausibility of a claim. (I.e. What you think will happen).
5. **Observations or data collection to test hypotheses:** Data can be quantitative or qualitative depending on the purpose of the inquiry and research design.
6. **Analyses:** Refers to the processing of data and how that is used to "make sense" of the data to draw conclusions about whether the hypothesis is supported or not. The type of analyses will depend on the research design.
7. **Conclusions:** The eventual decision about whether hypotheses should be accepted or rejected; and inferences derived from this; also acknowledging any shortcomings in findings.

Problem solving using research in organisations

The practical value of good research is for evidence-based problem solving. The problem-solving cycle is a good way to illustrate how this works. The cycle is a common approach to addressing problems in a variety of fields, adapted for use in organisations.



START

Compare the common problem-solving cycle in organisations with the steps of the scientific method. The scientific method can contribute to better problem solving techniques through the systematic, methodical process that is followed when conducting a scientific investigation.

Why do Industrial Psychologists engage in research?

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→ Industrial psychologists try to explain human behaviour in the work-place psychologically.
→ Human resource management interventions and decisions are based on these explanations of behaviour.
→ The success of the HRM interventions are therefore a function of the validity (correctness or truthfulness) of the explanations and claims.
→ By engaging in scientific research, they maximize the probability of valid (and thus credible) explanations or models of behaviour, and as such, contribute to more effective interventions.
→ Industrial psychologists and Human Resource Managers use other researcher's investigations and findings to avoid making the same mistakes, or to achieve a similar successful outcome.
→ Think of theories in terms of how useful they may be in a certain situation, rather than being "right" or "wrong".

Three broad categories of research and their purpose in Industrial Psychology:

1. **Explanatory Research**
   - The purpose is to **explain variance** in a phenomenon.
   - Example: Why do sales people vary in terms of success?
   - The focus is on **identifying and explaining causal relationships between variables.**

2. **Descriptive-diagnostic Research**
   - The purpose is to **describe the status quo reaction** in relation to the **ideal reaction** and to explain the **discrepancies between the two** in terms of (scientifically accepted) causal factors characterising the unit of analysis and its environment.
   - Example: How do sales people perform at the Fruity Sweets Southern Africa sales division? If the level of performance is not acceptable, why do they perform so poorly?
   - The focus is on **investigating concerns about levels of one or more reaction variables**, as well as understanding the reason for noticeable **low or high levels** on the relevant variables.

3. **Evaluation Research**

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- The purpose is to **evaluate an intervention** (before and/or after implementation) that is **intended to improve the level of performance** on a reaction variable.
- Example: What is the **expected impact** of the sales training intervention on sales performance?
- The focus is on whether theoretical grounds exist to expect the intervention to achieve the stated objectives, whether the stated objectives are achieved and whether the stated objectives are achieved in the intended manner.

Research Design

A way of ensuring objectivity in research is to design the research in such a way that all other possible explanations, other than the one being tested, are eliminated.
There are a series of decisions that need to be made before the research actually begins. Answers to these questions will determine the research design:

→ Will research be conducted in a laboratory under controlled conditions, or in the field?
→ Who will the participants be?
→ If there are different conditions in the research (e.g. some participants exposed to conditions and others not), how will participants be assigned to the various conditions?
→ What will the variables of interest be?
→ How will measurements of these variables be collected?

Three types of research design:

1. **Experimental**
   - Participants are randomly assigned to different conditions. Random assignment of participants is one of the characteristics that distinguishes an experiment form a quasi-experiment or non-experiment.
   - **Example:** Some employees participating may receive a piece rate payment for their work, whereas others receive an hourly rate. These two different rates of pay would be two separate conditions, and participants might be assigned randomly to one condition or the other.
   - Any differences that appear after experimental treatment are to conform to cause-effect relationships.
   - Not always possible to assign participants randomly to a condition.

2. **Quasi-experimental**

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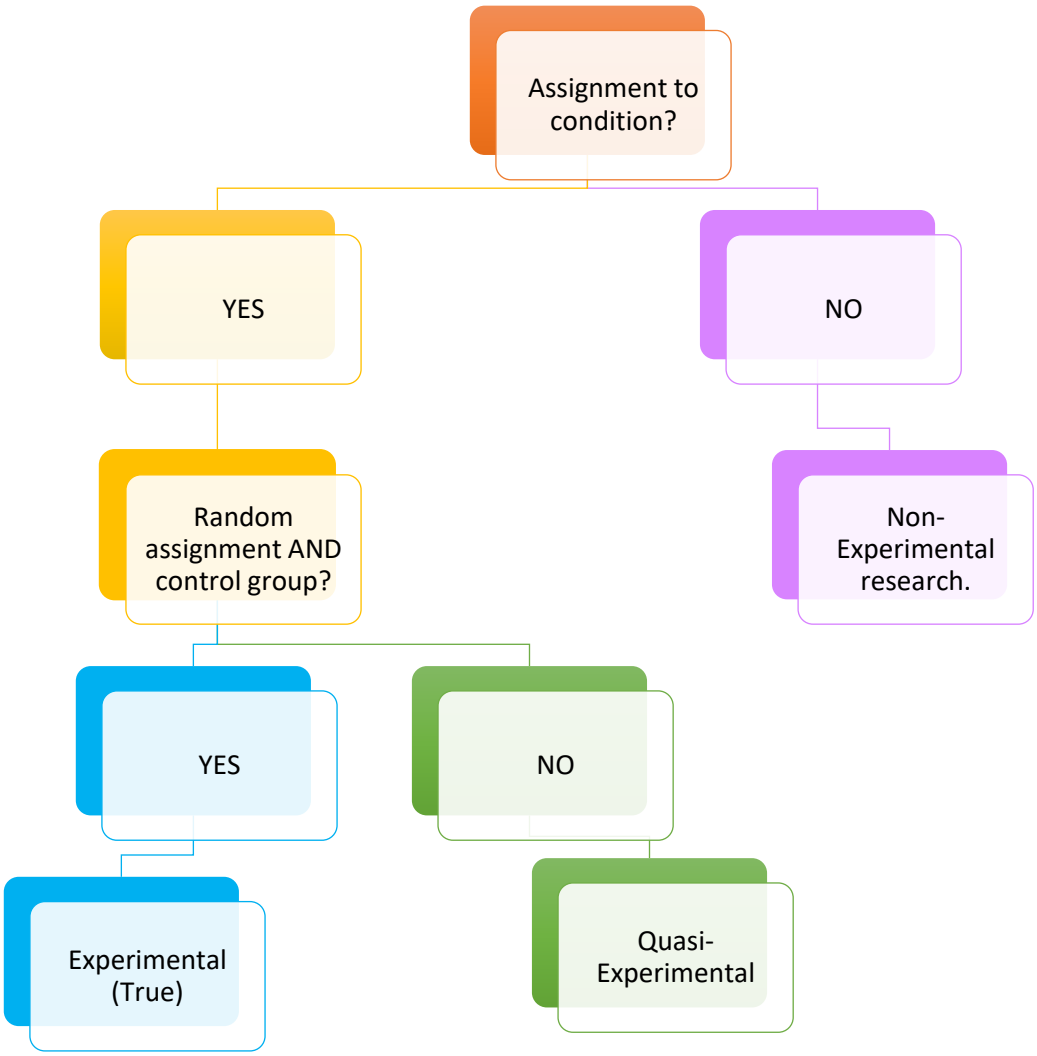
- Participants are assigned to different conditions, but random assignment to conditions is not possible.

3. **<u>Non-experimental designs (correlational designs)</u>**
   - Does not include any treatment or conditions.
   - Researcher gathers information without introducing any condition or treatment.
   - "Independent variable" to describe the treatment or previous condition.
   - "Dependent variable" to describe the subsequent behaviour of the research participant.
   - Two common non-experimental designs:
     - **Observational design:** The researcher observes employee behaviour and systematically records what is observed.
     - **Survey design:** Research strategy in which participants are asked to complete a questionnaire or survey.



(True) Experimental design

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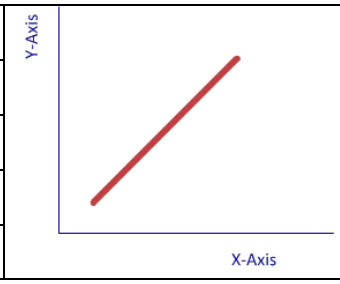
R	Experimental group	Y_b	X	Y_a	}	$Y_a \rightarrow Y_a$ Significance?		?	
	Control group	Y_b	$\sim X$	Y_a			$X \rightarrow Y$		
Quasi- experimental design									
R	Experimental group	Y_b	X	Y_a	}	$Y_a \rightarrow Y_a$ Significance?		?	
	~~Control group~~	Y_b	$\sim X$	Y_a			$X \rightarrow Y$		

Non-experimental (correlational) designs				
Person 1	X_1	Y_1		?
Person 2	X_2	Y_2		
Person 3	X_3	Y_3		$X \rightarrow Y$
Person 4	X_4	Y_4		
Person…	$X_{…}$	$Y_{…}$		

Laboratory studies versus field studies in I-O Psychology

- Laboratory studies are excellent methods of control and are more likely to lead to causal explanations.
- Field studies permit researchers to study behaviours difficult to simulate in a laboratory, however, cause-effect relationships are more difficult to examine in field studies.
- 67% of studies conducted by Industrial-organisational psychologists were done in field. 33% were conducted in the laboratories.
- Laboratory-based studies were usually experimental in design and used students as participants.
- Field studies were non-experimental and typically used employees as participants.

Reasons for the prevalence of non-experimental field research in I-O Psychology?

1. Difficult to reasonably simulate "work" in a laboratory as it is experienced by a worker.
2. Laboratory experiments often involve "samples of convenience" (i.e. student participants) and there is considerable doubt that the behaviour of student participants represent the behaviour of actual workers.
3. Experiments are difficult to do in the field as workers can seldom be randomly assigned to conditions or treatments.

Data collection and analysis in research

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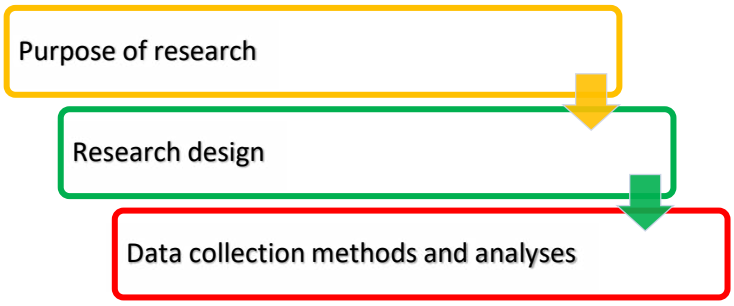
→ The ability to collect and analyse data are critical competencies from both a research and pragmatic perspective.
→ The specific methods of data collection, as well as the subsequent analyses is guided by the purpose of the research and the research design.



Quantitative and Qualitative research

→ Historically, I-O Psychologists used quantitative methods.
  - **Quantitative methods:** Rely on tests, rating scales, questionnaires, and psychological measures, and yield numerical results.
  - **Qualitative methods:** Rely on observation, interview, case studies, and analyses of diaries or written documents and produce flow diagrams and narrative descriptions of events or processes. Generally produce flow diagrams and narrative descriptions of events or processes.

→ Their preference of quantitative over qualitative can be attributed to the apparent preference of journal editors for quantitative research because numbers and statistical analyses conform to a traditional view of science.
→ Resistance to qualitative research is the result of viewing it as excessively subjective.
→ Concern is misplaced as all methods of research require interpretation, regardless of whether they are quantitative or qualitative.
→ The researcher is an explorer, trying to develop an understanding of some phenomenon, and should use all the information available.
→ The key is in combining information from multiple resources to develop a theory: **Triangulation** (converging information from different sources).
→ An example of triangulation is using a multi-method job analysis approach. This involves the combination of data from many different sources in coming to a complete understanding of the job in question – i.e. the tasks, duties and human attributes necessary to perform the job.

The importance of context in interpreting research

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- The added value of qualitative research is that it helps identify the context for the behaviour in question.
- Most experiments control variables that might "complicate" research and, in the process eliminate 'context'. This control can make the behaviour in question **less**, not more comprehensible.
- Context enhances the comprehensibility –the value of research findings.

Data analyses

- Appropriate and accurate data analysis is critical to come to credible conclusions.
- When done badly, data analysis can be confusing and misleading.
- It is important in research to distinguish between descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. In most cases, we use both when conducting research.

Descriptive statistics:

→ Summarise, organise, and describe a sample of data.
→ Purpose: Simply to describe the distribution of scores or numbers collected.
→ Three measures or characteristics used to describe and score distribution:
  - Measures of central tendency.
  - Variability.
  - Skew.

Inferential statistics:

→ Conduct a research study as we have a theory or hypothesis to examine.
→ E.g. People with higher mental ability test scores perform their jobs better than those with lower scores.
→ Inferential statistics are used to aid the researcher in testing hypothesis and making inferences from sample data to a larger sample or population.
→ Statistical tests such as t-test; analysis of variance or F tests and correlations can be used to determine if two groups differ on some variable of interest.

Quantitative data analyses in Industrial Psychology focuses predominantly on the following analyses:	
Analysis	**As guided by the following design:**
Analysis of differences between variables → Typically compare means (averages) of different groups.	Experimental designs
Analysis of relationships between variables → In simple analysis, the association between two variables may be examined in a correlational analysis. In more complex analyses, where there	Non-experimental (correlational) designs.

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are more variables, multiple regression or more advanced techniques are used.	

Concept of Correlation and Regression

→ There are many situations where experiments are not feasible.
→ It is unethical to manipulate a variable that would influence well-being at work.
→ The most common form of research is to observe and measure natural variation in variables of interest and look for associations among them.
→ The stronger the association between 2 variables; the better the prediction can be made from 1 variable to another.

→ **Correlation coefficient:** The measure of association most commonly used. It is a statistic assessing the bivariate, linear association between 2 variables. Provides information about both the magnitude (numerical value) and the direction (+/-) of the relationship between two variables.
→ The magnitude of the correlation is always from 0-1.
→ Zero = no association.
→ 0-0,1 = close to insignificant association.
→ 0,4 and above= substantial correlation.
→ If it has a + sign = Positive correlation between the two variables – I.e. as one increases the other increases.
→ If it has a – sign = Negative correlation between the two variables- I.e. as one decreases the other increases.

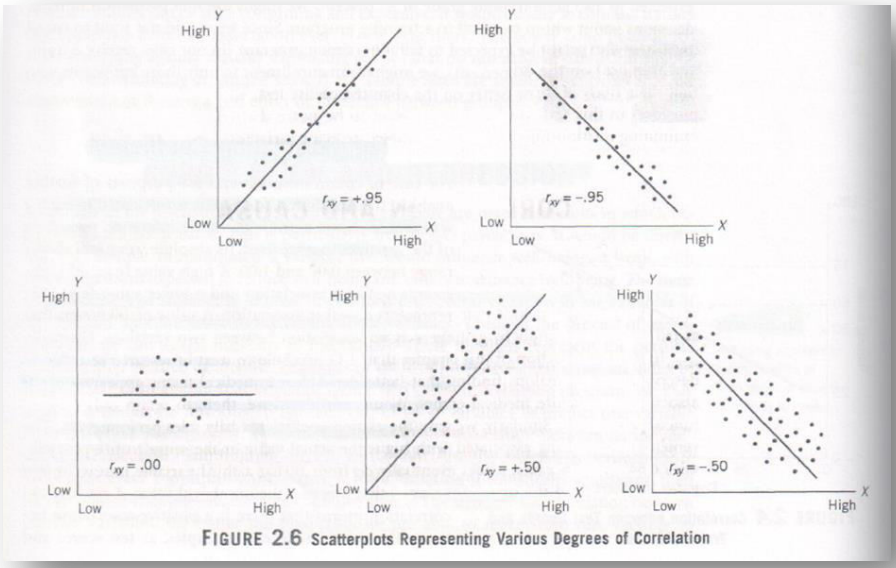

FIGURE 2.6 Scatterplots Representing Various Degrees of Correlation

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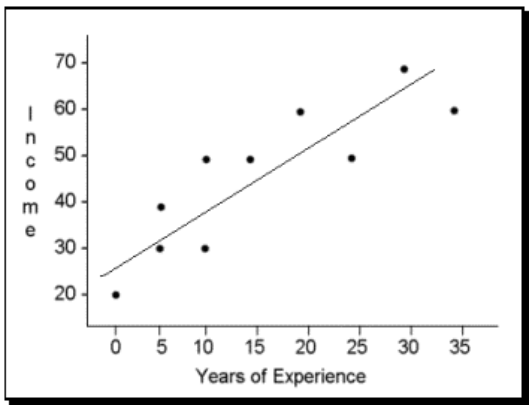
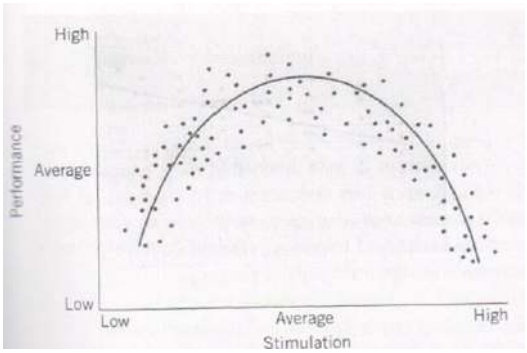
→ **Scatterplot:** Graph used to plot the scatter of scores on two variables; used to display correlation relationship between two variables. Each dot represents two scores achieved by an individual.

→ **Regression line:** Straight line that best "fits" the scatterplot and describe relationship between variables in graph. It predicts what Y variable might be expected with a particular score on the X variable.



→ The relationship may also be nonlinear (curvilinear) where there is no relationship.



Multiple correlation

→ There is more than one variable associated with particular aspect of behaviour.

→ This is accomplished though analysis known as multiple correlation.

→ Multiple correlation: Statistic that represents the overall linear association between several independent variables (e.g. cognitive ability, personality, experience) on one hand and a single dependent variable (e.g. job performance) on the other hand.

Correlation and causation

→ Correlation coefficients simply represent the extent to which two variables are associated. ∴ Do not signal any cause-effect relationship.

→ E.g. Height and weight positively correlated. We can hardly conclude then that weight causes height.

→ It is not easy to separate cause and effects.

→ Consider if the relationship is due to a third variable or if the second variable is causing the first variable and vice versa.

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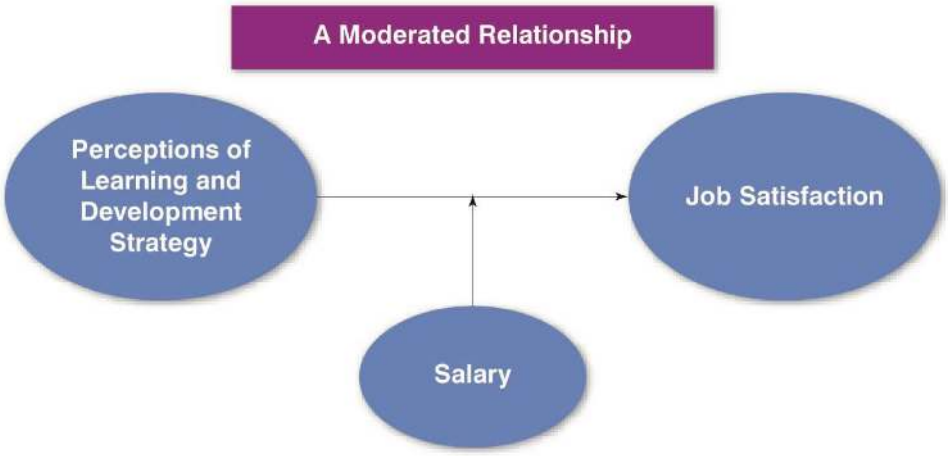
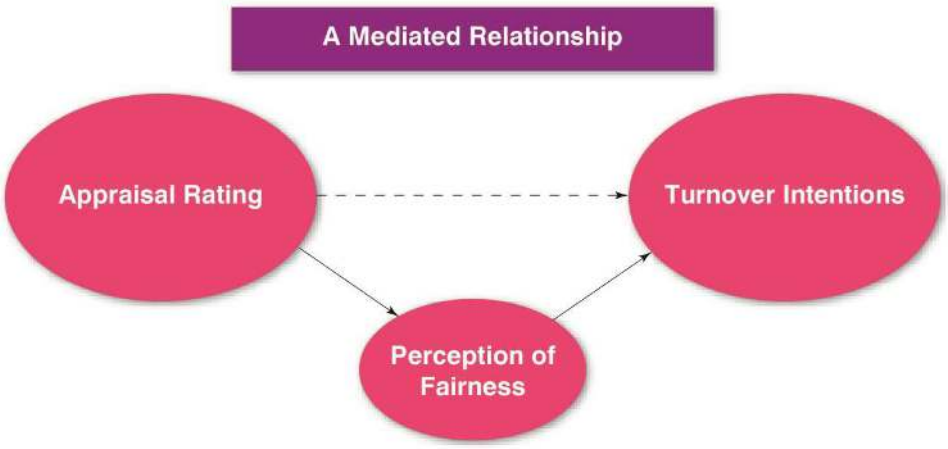
Moderators and mediators

- **Moderators:** Moderators are factors that affect the relationship between variables, representing conditions under which associations are either stronger or weaker.
- **Mediators:** A mediator is a factor that explains or accounts for the relationship between variables (i.e. x is related to y because of mediating factor z).





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Organisational Culture, Climate and Change

Theme 8: Outcomes

- ✓ Understand the concept of organisational culture and how it **manifests in organisations.**
- ✓ Compare and contrast the different **models** of culture:
  - Schein's model
  - Goffee and Jones' model
  - The competing values model
- ✓ Understand how organisational culture **develops** and how it is **maintained** with special reference to the **role of leadership**.
- ✓ Appreciate the various dimensions of **national culture** (according to Geert Hofstede) and understand how they help shape organisational culture.
- ✓ Discuss the centrality of, and significance of **Corporate Social Responsibility** as a cultural value for organisations in the 21st century.
- ✓ Understand the concept of **organisational climate and how it differs from organisational culture.**
- ✓ Explain how organisational culture and climate are **related to work-related behaviours** and ultimately organisational **performance**.
- ✓ Understand how organisations change including the general internal and external **forces of change**.
- ✓ Identify and understand the various models of or perspective on organisational change.
- ✓ Appreciate the centrality of leadership in an organisational change.
- ✓ Understand the causes of **resistance to organisational change** and how resistance can be overcome.

What is organisational culture?

- When you arrive in a new country for the first time you can very quickly learn about the people's culture by paying close attention, watching, listening and making some effort to gain insight into their way of living.
- The same method needs to be applied when looking at the culture of an organisation.
- **Definition**: Organisational culture is the set of shared, taken-for-granted implicit assumptions that members of an organisation hold, and that determine how they perceive, think about and react to their environment. This is visible in: Hierarchy, pay levels, job descriptions, informal practices (norms), espoused values and rituals, stories, jokes and jargon, and the physical environment.

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Hierarchy	Such as how many levels from the head of the organisation to the lowest level employee. The greater the number of levels relative to the number of employees, the more bureaucratic and the less innovative the organisation will generally be.
Pay levels	High or low, whether there is performance-related pay, and what the differentials are between people at different grades. Pay matters to people and how it is managed has a big effect on culture.
Job descriptions	How detailed or restrictive they are and what aspects they emphasize, such as safety or productivity, cost saving or quality. How rigid or flexible they seem to be and whether they are regularly reviewed.
Informal practices such as norms	Management and non-management sit at different tables in the dining hall; dress is strictly formal, or there are uniforms, or dress is casual and varied. People turn up late to meetings frequently or everyone is always there on time. Customers are spoken about warmly as partners or treated as a target group.
Espoused values and rituals	AN emphasis on cooperation and support versus cut-and-thrust competition between teams; cards, gifts and parties for those leaving the organization or such events are not observed. There are always festivities at key-points in the calendar (summer barbeque and religious celebrations) and people behave wildly versus social events are dignified and restrained.
Stories, jokes and jargon	Commonly told stories about a particular success or the failings of the chief executive; sarcasm about the HR department for example; and jargon or acronyms (most hospitals have a way of speaking that is often beyond patients.)
Physical environment	Office space, eating areas, rest rooms. Are all spaces clean, tidy and comfortable, or is it only the areas on public display? Are there decorations such as plants and paintings and good facilities such as water fountains? Is the place overrun with paper or cables? Does it feel pleasant, urgent, uncomfortable, overwhelming or exciting to be in?

Models of culture

→ There are many different theories/models of organisational culture. Different models should not be viewed as competing theories but rather just as different viewpoints to the same phenomenon.

1. Schein's Model

- Views culture in terms of three different levels.
- **Espoused values:** Those elements that are captured in the mission statements, visions and company brochures.

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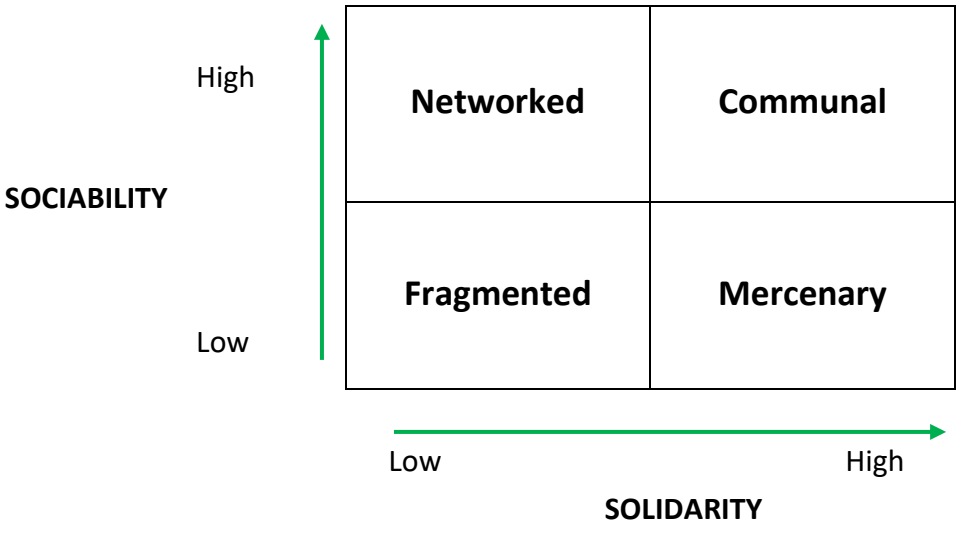
- **Artefacts:** Elements such as hierarchy, pay levels, documents, meeting practices, ritual celebrations etc.
- **Basic hidden assumptions:** Those elements that tell us a great deal about the organisation's true values.

Behaviour and Artifacts: Visible manifestations of organisational culture.
Espoused values: Formalized statements of organisational culture.
Basic assumptions: Tacit suppositions of organisational culture.

2. <u>Goffee and Jones': Sociability vs. Solidarity model</u>

- Goffee and Jones (1998) believe culture can be represented by two fundamental dimensions:
    - **Sociability:** Sincere friendliness or the emotional non-instrumental relations among individuals who regard one another as friends (social relations).
    - **Solidarity:** Refers to the emphasis on shared common tasks and goals (task performance).
- The two dimensions can be represented by a two-by-two matrix of four possible configurations.



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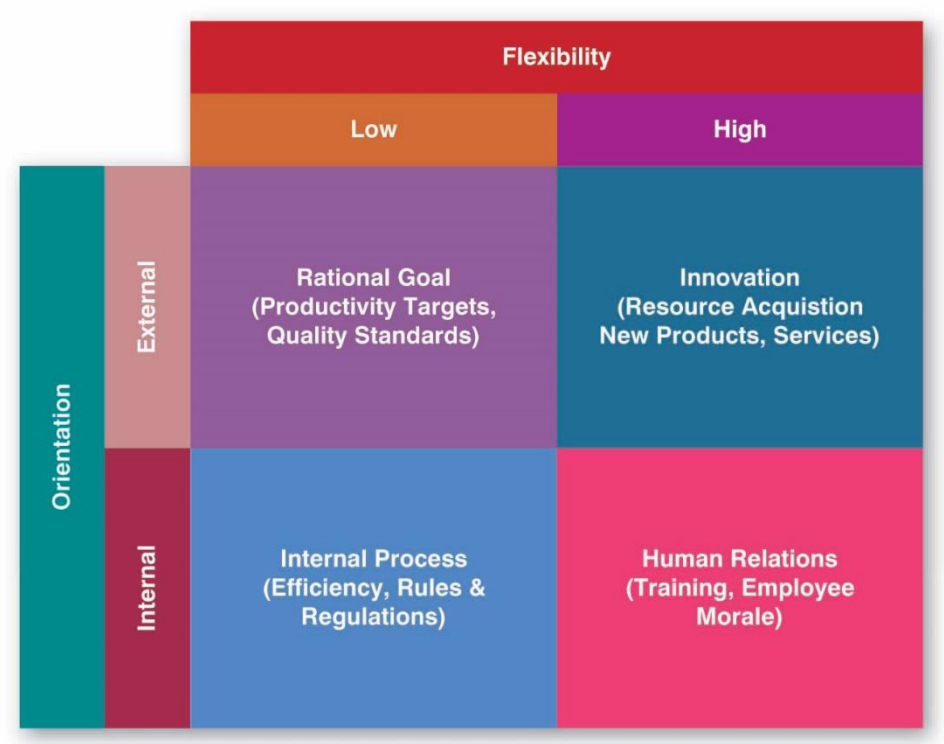
- **Networked organisation:** High sociability and low solidarity. Emphasis is on warm, positive feelings and good social relations rather than on task performance.
- **Mercenary organisation:** Low sociability and high solidarity. High emphasis on productivity and performance with little concern with the quality of social relations.
- **Fragmented organisation:** Low sociability and low solidarity. Neither emphasise productivity nor quality of social relations.
- **Communal organisation:** High sociability and high solidarity. High emphasis on both productivity and the quality of social relations.

3. <u>The Competing Values Model (Cameron and Quinn, 1997)</u>

- A relatively more complex two-by-two model (compared to the Goffee and Jones model).
- The model incorporates into a single model two fundamental dimensions of effectiveness:
    - Flexibility vs Control
    - Internal orientation vs External orientation
- The result is a four quadrant model:



- It calls attention to how opposing values exist in organisations and how individual organisations are likely to embrace different mixtures of values that are reflected in their desired ends and their means to attain them.

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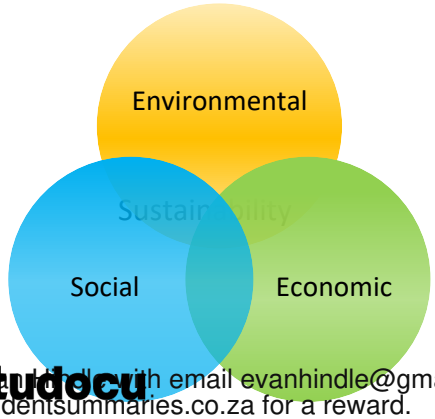
- Internal orientation and low flexibility- internal process emphasis. Reflects a Tayloristic concern with formalisation and internal control of the system in order that resources are used efficiently.
- Internal orientation and high flexibility- human relations emphasis. This emphasizes the well-being, growth, and commitment of the community of workers within the organisation.
- External orientation and low flexibility- rational goal emphasis. The emphasis is on productivity and goal achievement.
- External orientation and high flexibility- innovation emphasis. Called the open systems approach and emphasizes the interaction and adaptation of the organisation in its environment, with managers seeking resources and innovating in response to environmental (or market) demands.

How do cultures develop?

→ There are many factors that facilitate the development of an organisations culture. Some of these factors include:
  - Leadership- What they say, the decisions they make and what they do all help to shape what the organisation stands for. Leaders are the custodians of organisational culture.
  - The recruitment and selection process- What sort of people are recruited with what competencies and characteristics?
  - Socialisation process- Refers to what employees especially new ones are told (explicitly or impliedly so) about the organisation and its expectations.
  - Globalisation- The culture of multinational corporations is also shaped by national cultures.

→ The organisations cultural orientation will have an impact on performance-related factors such as customer service, teamwork, employee satisfaction and corporate social responsibility.

→ **Corporate social responsibility:** A cultural value that emphasises the importance of organisations promoting business activities that bring simultaneous economic, social and environmental benefits. In essence, it involves considering and/or forging partnerships with other stakeholders that can also be affected, directly or indirectly, by the activities of the organisation. Some of these stakeholders include:
  - Other organisations
  - Community bodies
  - Unions (employees)
  - Consumers



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Globalisation and Culture

→ Organisational culture **develop and evolve** in the **context of national culture**.

→ The challenge for especially large multinational corporation (MNC's) is to strike a balance between ensuring that their cultural values are globally relevant but still locally appropriate at national levels.

→ Geert Hofstede points out **four** underlying dimensions of national culure that potentially have a bearing on organisational culture:

Individualistic/ Collectivistic	How personal needs and goals are prioritized vs. the needs and goals of the group/clan/organisation.
Masculine/ Feminine	Masculine societies have different rules for men and women, less so in feminine cultures.
Uncertainty Avoidance	How comfortable are people with changing the way they work or live (Low UA) or prefer the known systems (High UA).
Power Distance	The degree people are comfortable with influencing others. Acceptance of inequality in distribution of power in society.
Time Perspective	Long-term perspective, planning for future, perseverance values vs short time past and present oriented.

What is Organisational Climate?

→ Closely related to the concept of organisational culture is the concept of organisational climate. If culture is what makes the organisation distinctive, climate is "what it feels like to work here".

→ Defined as: Employees perceptions of the work environment. At individual level it can be referred to as psychological climate and when shared, group or organisational climate.

→ Organisational climate can also be viewed in terms of individual employees' interpretation of processes, practices and behaviours in the organisation and how this affects their sense or well-being. For example, an authoritarian supervisor will affect individual employees' well-being and ultimately group and organisational culture.

→ Although overlap exists between the concepts, climate and culture, there are also distinct differences.

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→ The climate can for example be experienced as friendly, competitive, laid back or authoritarian.

→ In summary, whilst climate refer to individuals' surface experiences and perceptions, culture shapes (often subtly) taken-for-granted and unconscious assumptions about how to behave in the organisation and the meaning given to event.

Organisational Culture, climate, behaviour and organisational performance:

- The organisation's cultural orientation will have an indirect (or direct) impact on performance-related success factors such as customer service, teamwork, employee satisfaction and corporate social responsibility.
- Between the two (culture and climate), climate has a relatively more *direct* impact on performance-related factors – WHY?
- Individual perceptions of climate affects attitudes and motivation, both of which affects behaviour and ultimately performance (individual, group and organisational).
- The individual, group and organisational experiences of employees (climate) can ultimately become part of '*how we do things around here*' (culture) and the culture can also recursively affect employee experiences (climate).
- There are cultures and climates that are more suited with organisational success because they positively influence organisational performance (success) domains. Some success domains include:
    - Customer service
    - Quality
    - Involvement
    - Training
    - Information knowledge (both acquisition and transfer)
    - Teamwork organisation
    - Overall satisfaction

Organisational Change

- In order to survive organisations have to be able to adapt to their environment.
- There are a wide range of factors that can necessitate the need for organisational change:
    - Actions of competition
    - Government legislation
    - Environmental factors
    - Demographic factors
    - Ethics
    - Leaders or leadership

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- These factors can be classified as either internal or external to the organisation.

4 Different viewpoints/ models/ perspectives on organisational change

Episodic vs Continuous Change

→ Developed by Weick and Quinn (1999).

→ Believes there are two types of change:

1. Episodic (Planned) Change

- Is a planned and potentially revolutionary change.
- Aim is to make fundamental and lasting change in some organisations functioning.
- The change is usually big, noisy and involves lots of resources in terms of time and money.
- Examples of this include restructurings, mergers and acquisition- all of which might lead to redundancies (and even large scale retrenchments) in the workplace.

2. Continuous (Emergent) Change

- Involves continuous (usually non-disruptive) improvements, encouraged by continuous reflection and learning.
- Can be achieved by encouraging all to be agents of change i.e. take responsibility for change and learning in their respective work environments.
- Works better with flexible rather than bureaucratic organisational systems- freedom to change should be allowed.

Systems Perspective to Change

→ The systems perspective is anchored in the systems thinking.

→ The perspective fundamentally assumes that organisations are composed of a multitude of subsystems that vary in size and scope, and that change in one subsystem will lead to changes in other related subsystems.

→ The following are some examples of subsystems:

- Organisational goals and values
- Technical subsystems
- Psychosocial subsystems
- Managerial subsystems
- The work itself including design, demands and rewards
- The people including KSAO's
- The formal organisation- structure, procedures and policies.
- The informal organisation- power, influence, values, norms.

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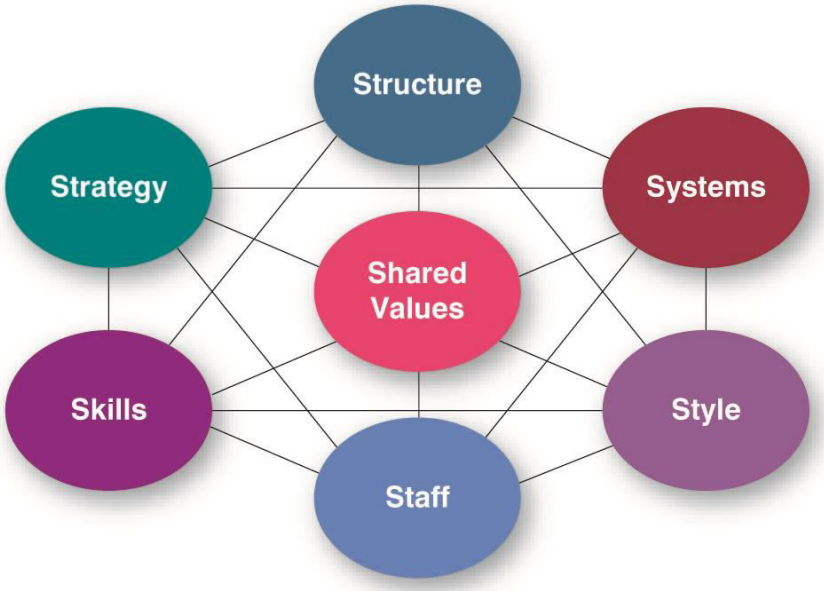
→ Different models have been developed to apply the systems perspective in managing organisational change: The McKinsey 7S Model, The Burke-Litwin Model, The Complex-Adaptive systems Model.

1. <u>The McKinsey 7S Model:</u>

- Designed by McKinsey Consultancy.
- It is a framework that identifies seven interdependent systems in organisations.
- Focuses on the internal issues in organisations and omitted the external environment.

- Strategy- The organisation's long term mission and strategy.
- Structure- The way the organisation is structured.
- Systems- Systems and procedures that govern the way things are done.
- Shared values- Core values evident in the culture and norms.
- Style- Leadership style of senior leaders.
- Staff- The staff of the organisation including motivation and satisfaction.
- Skills- the skills and competencies of the employees.



2. <u>The Burke-Litwin Model:</u>

- One of the most useful models of organisational performance.
- The key features of the model are:
    - The distinction between Transformational factors (mission and strategy, leadership, organisational culture) and transactional/operational factors (structure, systems, management, practices and climate).
    - The external environment is the most powerful driver of organisational change.

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- Changes in the external environment affect transformational factors and these in turn lead to changes in the transactional factors.

- Changes in the transformational and transactional factors together affect motivation, which in turn affects performance (individual, group and organisational).
- Changes in any one of the 12 components (see below) will likely lead to specific changes in the others.
- **Transformational** factors play a key role with regard to major change.
- **Transactional** factors are important with regard to continuous improvement and optimisation.

The Learning Perspective

→ This perspective advocates a pro-active approach to change and the creating of a culture within which learning happens continually at all levels.

→ Two notions that developed from this perspective:

1. **Action Learning:** Proposes that organisations should continuously review their functioning, diagnose gaps between current and desired performance, identify objectives for change, implement change, evaluate the outcomes and institutionalise the whole approach.
2. **The Learning Organisation:** Works to create, acquire and transfer knowledge in order that the organisation adapts itself continually on the basis of new knowledge and insight, as well as to the external forces that influence survival.

1. Diagnosing the organization
2. Determining the desired future state
3. Implementing action
4. Evaluating the action
5. Institutionalizing action research

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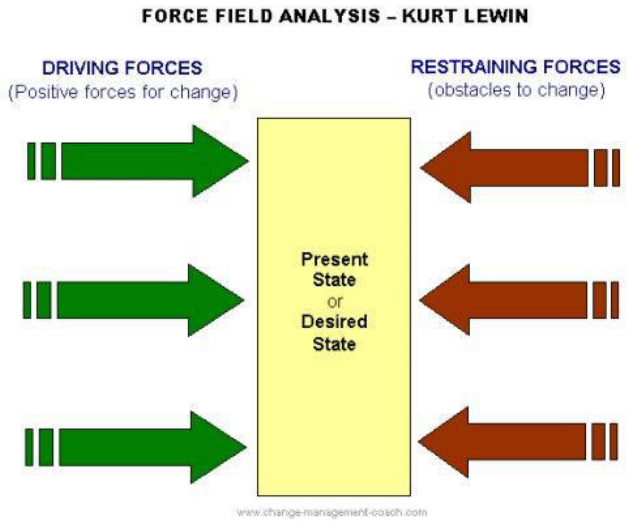
The Force field analysis of Change

→ Proposed by Kurt Lewin (1948).

→ According to this model change occurs when:

- The forces favouring change strengthen.
- Resisitence to change lessens or…
- If both occur simultaneously.
- Otherwise organisations remain in equilibrium.



Leadership in change

→ The external environment is the most powerful driver of organisational change.

→ Changers in the external environment affect transformational factors (mission and strategy, leadership, organisational culture).

→ Leaders and senior management are central to the change process because they:

- Initiate change in response to either internal (strength and weaknesses) and/or external factors (opportunities and threats)
- And also drive/ lead change once it's in motion.

→ This is particularly so because they occupy a strategic position in the organisation and are therefore the custodians of organisational strategy and culture, and thereby influence performance.

→ The challenge for the leadership of organisations and other change leaders (e.g. Industrial Psychologists) is to understand and manage change so that it is shaped to support the fundamental purpose of the organisation (sustainability) and to enable the effectiveness and flourishing of those who work within and are served by the organisation.

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Resistance to change

→ Regardless of what triggers it, change is not always accepted by the organisation including individual employees

→ Both the organisation and the employees can resist the change for different reasons.

→ Resistance to change by employees can help ensure that change is introduced wisely but it can also stand in the way of good and/or necessary change.

→ Employees can resist change for various reasons including the following:

- **Uncertainty and insecurity:** About their future individually and/or collectively.
- **Selective perception and retention:** During change people tend to listen carefully and remember the potentially threatening aspects.
- **Misunderstanding:** About the nature of the change and the consequences.
- **Habit:** People don't want to change old ways- "If it ain't broke don't fix it" attitude.
- Perceptions that change poses a threat to status, security, pay, job role or the social environment.
- People feel that change is unwise- no going to help them do better.

→ A good change strategy and with good intention can fail if it's not implemented well.

→ John Kotler (1995) proposed the following prescriptions for the successful implementation of organisational change:

- Establish a sense of urgency about need for change.
- Form a powerful guiding coalition.
- Create a vision of the benefits and value of the change .
- Communicate the vision to all affected by the change.
- Empower others to act on the vision.
- Plan for and create short-term wins.
- Consolidate improvements and produce still more change.
- Institutionalise new approaches.

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